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An Examination of the Relationship Between Perceived Leadership Behaviors, Perceived Team Cohesion and Team Performance

Alvin Miles
Kennesaw State University, acm0996@kennesaw.edu

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS, PERCEIVED TEAM COHESION, AND TEAM PERFORMANCE

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Alvin C. Miles

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The content and format of the dissertation are appropriate and acceptable for the awarding of the degree of Doctor of Business Administration.

Steve Werner, Ph.D
Committee Chair
Professor of Management
Department of Management
Bauer College of Business
University of Houston

Signature: _____

Joe Astrachan, Ph.D
Committee Member
Professor of Management & Entrepreneurship
Department of Management & Entrepreneurship
Coles College of Business
Kennesaw State University

Signature: _____

Stacy Campbell, Ph.D
Reader
Associate Professor of Management & Entrepreneurship
Department of Management & Entrepreneurship
Coles College of Business
Kennesaw State University

Signature: _____

Torsten Pieper, PhD
Academic Director, KSU DBA Program
Assistant Professor of Management
Department of Management and Entrepreneurship
Kennesaw State University

Signature: _____

Charles J. Amlaner, Jr., DPhil
Vice President for Research and
Dean of Graduate College
Kennesaw State University

Signature: _____

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I dedicate this degree to my parents Alvin and Mercedes Miles.

I always feel your heavenly guidance and pride. Both of you made a way when there didn't seem be a way. Thank you for demonstrating that

the essence of teamwork and leadership is love.

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS, PERCEIVED TEAM COHESION, AND TEAM PERFORMANCE

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH

This collection of essays examines the perceived relationship between two distinct sources of leadership and the performance of action teams within organizations. Leadership is defined as a set of demonstrated behaviors that are intended to influence followers and, ultimately, influence the performance of a team. While the construct of team performance has enjoyed extensive examination in the academic literature, there is still more knowledge to gain, and whether leadership originates from an individual or from collective group efforts, its effects on performance at the team level of analysis are still not clear. The essays in this study will contribute to the discussion by examining the perceived behaviors of individual leadership (Essay 1), and perceived distributed leadership (Essay 2) and each of their respective relationships to team performance.

ESSAY 1: An examination of the relationship between perceived leadership behaviors, perceived team cohesion, and team performance

This essay contributes to the discussion of leadership styles, team cohesion and team performance by utilizing the nine-factor, full range of leadership model to examine how the perception of leadership behaviors relate to the performance of action and performing teams; a team type that often encounters intense, complex and difficult situations necessitating rapid responses delivered in a highly coordinated manner. It is posited that the more transformational the leadership style, the stronger its relationship to team performance in this context. Additionally, the perception of team cohesion is

hypothesized to be affected by leadership style and to be related to team performance. The results of this research will provide findings that may be useful for informing behaviors of organizational leaders in the context of action teams.

ESSAY 2: An examination of the relationship between perceived distributed leadership, team performance, and the moderating effect of task interdependence

This essay furthers the empirical probe of the leadership style - team performance linkage by assessing the perceptions of a leader's distributed leadership behaviors and analyzing their relation to team performance. Further, it is hypothesized that this linkage is subject to the moderating effect of team interdependence; more specifically, as a work environment becomes more interdependent, leaders who are perceived to exhibit greater levels of distributed leadership realize a stronger relationship to team performance.

These combined essays will examine the responses from a sample of sports beatwriters to assess their perceptions of the leadership styles of National Football League (NFL), National Basketball Association (NBA) and National Hockey League (NHL) head coaches[i] along with Major League Baseball (MLB) managers during the 2000 – 2011 seasons. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) is the survey employed to assess perceptions of leadership styles, and adapted items from a previously validated scale (Michalisin et al., 2007) are used to assess perceptions of team cohesion in the first essay. In the second essay, beatwriters responded to a survey adapted from Carson, Tesluk & Marrone (2007) to assess their perceptions of leader's distributed

leadership intensity. The call for a comprehensive view of leadership by exploring multiple leadership sources simultaneously (Morgeson et al., 2010) influenced the current research design of this dissertation. The study seeks to answer this call by performing a cross-sectional field study at the team level of analysis to identify the relationship between the perceptions of each leadership behavior and team performance.

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS, PERCEIVED TEAM COHESION, AND TEAM PERFORMANCE

ABSTRACT

This collection of essays examines the relationship between two distinct sources of leadership and the performance of action teams within organizations. Leadership is defined as a set of demonstrated behaviors that are intended to influence followers and, ultimately, impact the performance of a team. While the construct of team performance has enjoyed extensive examination in the academic literature, there is still more knowledge to gain, and whether leadership originates from an individual or from collective group efforts, its effects on performance at the team level of analysis are still not clear. The essays in this study will contribute to the discussion by examining perceived leadership styles (Essay 1), and perceived distributed leadership (Essay 2) and their respective effects upon team performance. Essay 1 will examine the relationship of perceived leadership styles, perceived team cohesion and team performance.

This essay contributes to the discussion of leadership styles, team cohesion and team performance by utilizing the nine-factor, full range of leadership concept to examine how perceived leadership styles relate to the performance of action and performing teams; a team type that often encounters intense, complex and difficult situations necessitating rapid responses delivered in a highly coordinated manner. It is posited that the more transformational a leader's style, the better his or her team performs. Additionally, the perception of team cohesion is hypothesized to be affected by

perceived leadership behaviors and to be related to team performance. The results of this research will provide findings useful for informing behaviors of organizational leaders in the context of action teams, yet learnings from prior studies suggest that leadership emanating from a single leader may not produce results in all situations (e.g., Hoch, Pearce, and Welzel, 2010). Given the increased interest in organizational teams, the second study is undertaken to understand if leadership emanating from a single individual will continue its relationship to team performance results given the interdependent nature of organizational teams, or if a decentralized approach to team leadership provides greater efficacy.

Essay 2 will examine the relationship of perceived distributed leadership on team performance and the moderating effect of task interdependence and expects to add to the team performance literature by focusing on how perceived distributed leadership is related to team performance. It is hypothesized that this linkage is subject to the moderating effect of task interdependence; more specifically, as a work environment increases in interdependence (reciprocal and sequential versus pooled), the perception of distributed leadership enjoys a greater relationship with team performance in the context of team sports. The combined essays will examine the responses from a sample of beatwriters to assess the leadership styles of National Football League (NFL), National Basketball Association (NBA) and National Hockey League (NHL) head coaches[ii] along with Major League Baseball (MLB) managers during the 2000 – 2011 seasons. Researchers utilized the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) to assess leadership styles in the first essay. In the second essay, beatwriters responded to a survey adapted from Carson, Tesluk & Marrone (2007) to assess the leader's distributed

leadership intensity. The call for a comprehensive view of leadership by exploring multiple leadership sources simultaneously (Morgeson et al., 2010) influenced the current research design. The study seeks to answer this call by performing a cross-sectional field experiment at the team level of analysis to identify conditions that further delineate the strength and direction of the relationships between perceived leadership behaviors and team performance.

CHAPTER II: ESSAY 1

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES, PERCEIVED TEAM COHESION, AND TEAM PERFORMANCE

ABSTRACT

In an effort to help explain more of the variance in team performance, studies examining the effects of leadership upon team performance have included a limited number of contexts (Antonakis, Avolio and Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Tejada, Scandura and Pillai, 2001). This study is the first to empirically examine the relationship of leadership styles to team cohesion, and team cohesion to team performance utilizing the nine-factor version of the full range of leadership theory (transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and no leadership typologies) in the context of professional sports. Further, it empirically measures the perceptions of official members of the sports league ecosystem who are integral to the team process. Survey responses were analyzed to determine the leadership styles of head coaches and managers of four professional sports leagues in North America. Results show that a broad range of leadership styles have a relationship with overall performance and cohesion. Further, a positive and strong

relationship between cohesion and team performance was found. Unexpectedly, the perceptions of a leaders' use of active management by exception behaviors appeared to make a positive difference for both perceived team cohesion and team performance in this context. Implications for leadership theory and future research are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Teams are increasingly becoming important building blocks of organizational success for three distinct reasons: 1) Teams respond quickly and comprehensively to competitive forces; 2) teams achieve greater organizational efficiencies and solve complex problems by shortening the learning curve associated with work groups and short term task forces; and 3) teams help surpass results achieved through individual efforts. Along with the increasing utilization of organizational teams, leadership has also enjoyed extensive examination in academic literature, yet most of the studies have targeted the individual and executive levels of analysis (Kaiser, et al. 2008). DeChurch et al. (2010) concur and noted that relatively little leadership research focuses on leveraging individual activity into team, unit or organizational effectiveness. This essay attempts to address this gap by examining the influence of the full range of leadership theory (FRLT) upon team cohesion and upon team performance in the context of team sports, by surveying those with access to observe the behaviors of coaches and players on a daily, weekly, monthly and yearly basis in both informal and formal settings.

Sports are an underutilized source of data for the purpose of studying managerial and leadership research, although a number of parallels exist between leaders in both sports and business. Leaders in organizations and professional coaches in sports face

similar occupational challenges. For instance, both tend to be involved in the selection of their subordinates' roles, continued development and performance appraisals, as well as the implementation of their unit's strategy. In addition, both face similar obstacles to success such as difficult goals that require precise coordination of their subordinates' efforts, and rapidly approaching deadlines. Based on such similarities, Cannella and Rowe (1995) note, "Sports teams can provide insights about leader abilities and experience levels that are quite relevant to other types of organizations (p. 73)." Prior scholarly work suggests that professional sports coaches will provide a reasonable proxy for leaders in business settings.

Researchers have placed substantial focus on the study of both leadership and teams. Beginning with the study of leader traits (e.g., Barrick and Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001), progressing to the study of leader behaviors (House and Aditya, 1997; Judge, et al., 2004) and later focusing on the contingencies inherent in the study of leadership (Ayman et al., 1995; Beersma et al., 2003), the topic of leadership continues to be a relevant research area. From the military (Hardy et al., 2010), to the halls of education (Purvanova and Bono, 2009), to psychology (Gibson et al., 2009), management (Carpenter, 2004), healthcare (Judge and Ryman, 2001), and nursing (Cummings et al., 2009), leadership has been defined as a process whereby one influences others to ensure the completion of organizational goals. This scenario of influence is enacted most often in the context of teams because firms increasingly recognize the competitive advantage high-performing teams provide (e.g., Somech et al., 2008). Prior studies aggregate the sub-dimensions of leadership up to either the transformational or transactional levels and

don't fully explore the nuances of leadership by examining the leadership behaviors contributing to team performance.

This study seeks to make multiple contributions to the leadership body of knowledge. First, this study represents a unique, empirical test of the nine-factor Full Range of Leadership theory in the group process of team sports. Second, this study provides an indirect measure of perceived leadership by analyzing the perceptions of official members of the sports league ecosystem who are integral to the team process, and have the ability and credentials to observe, document, analyze and communicate these behaviors. Third, the study provides high internal validity of the findings by employing subjective and objective data, thereby attempting to avoid common method bias by surveying beatwriters to assess their perceptions of the leadership style of head coaches, while utilizing objective win-loss records to assess the head coaches' performance. Finally, the study employs a cross-sectional design utilizing four distinct groups in an attempt to overcome the sample size limitations noted in previous studies (e.g. Barrick et al., 2007; Carson et al., 2007).

The remainder of this manuscript is structured as follows. The first section reviews the existing literature and theoretical background for the variables of interest, and introduces the proposed hypotheses emerging from the literature. The second section discusses the methods of analysis including how the measurements of the variables are operationalized, why the specific data underlying this study are selected, how the data are collected and subsequently analyzed, and an interpretation of the analysis findings. The final section discusses the implications of the study findings, limitations of the study and recommendations for further research.

Literature Review

The Importance of Teams

Over the past several decades, the use of teams in industrial, governmental and educational settings has grown in importance as organizations realize the power of teams to help meet challenging performance targets (Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford, & Melner, 1999). As an example, the strategy to utilize teams in *Fortune* 1000 firms increased from below twenty percent in 1980, to about 50 percent in 1990, and exceeded 80 percent by 2000 according to time-series surveys (Garvey, 2002).

Greater utilization of teams in organizations provides a better response to competitive forces, mines greater efficiencies from existing resources and offers an ability to produce better results (Kozlowski and Bell, 2003; Belout, 1997; Sundstrom, 1999). First, increasing global competition coupled with the paradox of *having to do more with less* has influenced organizations to build upon a foundation of teamwork to leverage human capital (Kozlowski and Bell, 2003). In an effort to abate these pressures, organizations realize the need to be efficient, effective and flexible (Belout, 1997). Teams are capable of this. Whether working on mergers and acquisitions, an international audit committee, or developing the next super drug, teams enable outcomes that surpass results garnered through individual effort. Organizational success, therefore, can hinge upon the ability of teams to collaborate effectively and work efficiently toward solving complex problems (DeChurch and Mesmer-Magnus, 2010).

Second, organizations are able to garner greater efficiencies from their existing workforce by utilizing teams as opposed to work groups or task forces. The relationships built through the team dynamic engender greater cooperation over a longer duration of

engagement, which in turn, helps teams to learn quicker, leverage that learning for a longer period of time, and minimize the need to go outside of the team for skills, knowledge and expertise.

Third, companies report more successes with work teams. In the earlier years of research in the area of teams, scientists noted dramatic effects on organizations that began to utilize the team approach. In the process, studies found "tenfold reductions in error rates and quality defects, productivity gains of two hundred percent and more, ninety percent reductions in response time, process steps reduced in number to one-tenth what they were, and product-to-market cycles cut by half " (Sundstrom, 1999, pg. 4).

Overall, the success of teams is due to their ability to produce results given their judicious utilization. Teams are not ubiquitous, and research findings demonstrate positive results when team types align with the organizational need (e.g., Carpenter, 2004; Cummings, MacGregor, Davey, Lee, Wong, Lo, Muise and Stafford, 2009; Gibson, Conger and Cooper, 2009; Judge and Ryman, 2001). A description of team types follows next.

Team Types

Team researchers have yet to settle upon a single team typology although several have been put forth (e.g., Devine, 2002). From a functional perspective, Sundstrom (1999) details six types of work teams categorized according to organizational position, tenure or organizational mandate. These team types are management, production, service, project, parallel, and action/performing teams.

Management teams are typically composed of functionally heterogeneous members with varying specializations that interact interdependently between themselves and with other parts of the organization. These teams usually possess the highest rank and the greatest authority in an organization due to their span of control, responsibilities and resources (Sundstrom, 1999). Production teams are generally described as homogeneous groups of front-line employees who produce tangible outputs in a routine, continuous fashion using relatively advanced technology (Devine, 2002). Production teams usually have short, recurring work cycles involving tasks that are very structured and unambiguous; the collective goal is to build, harvest or assemble as efficiently and accurately as possible. These teams usually possess the lowest rank and the least authority in an organization.

Project teams are sometimes called "task forces" and are characterized as heterogeneous groups collaborating on one-of-a-kind endeavors whose operations are only weakly linked to the organization's day-to-day activities (Devine, 2002). Parallel teams represent a group of workers outside of, and in parallel with a formal organizational structure (Cohen and Bailey, 1997). In this configuration, members from various peripheral work groups are brought together to form committees, advisory boards or other functions focused on making recommendations or suggestions to those at a higher level in the organization (Hollenbeck, Beersma and Schouten, 2012) and team members tend to work in a support role, while not necessarily providing technical expertise.

Teams in the category of action and performance are heterogeneous groups of highly specialized individuals that engage in relatively brief, real-time "performance

events" for which they maintain a collective skill (Devine, 2002). The diversity of the team members' skills typically are matched to the impromptu creation required in their roles. The work of these teams can be done in circumstances that are complex, intense and unpredictable, and the structure of their task interdependency with the rest of the organization can range on a continuum from low (e.g., pooled or sequential interdependence) to high (e.g., reciprocal or team interdependence) (Comeau and Griffith, 2005). Examples of this team type include negotiating teams, surgery teams, professional musicians, and sports teams (Rasmussen and Jeppesen, 2006). A distinguishing quality of this team type is the requirement for coordination among specialized roles. This mandates the necessity for individual members to maintain and blend the specialized quantitative skills necessary to complete the task work, with the qualitative skills necessary to ensure teamwork is maximized, and a smoothly coordinated, collective performance event is delivered.

The use of action and performing teams is argued to be the appropriate team type for this study because of the prevalence of this team type in the workplace, the increasingly common expectation that employees work effectively in teams to help firms gain a competitive advantage, and the realization that these teams are sometimes asked to perform in a variety of complex, stressful conditions (e.g., Day, Gronn & Salas, 2004; Humphrey, Mannor and Morgeson, 2009; Pfeffer and Blake, 1986) along a continuum of interdependence with the organization as a whole. Although this research sample involves only one category of teams, the need for leadership is a common denominator for all team types who aspire to success by leveraging the individual efforts of its members into a synchronous, collective whole.

Evolution of Leadership Research

The earliest empirical study of leadership began with an examination of the personal qualities that differentiated leaders from nonleaders using a sample of schoolchildren (Terman, 1904). The premise that leaders are limited to a select few people with innate abilities and a genetic predisposition, and that the particular characteristics of leaders matter, ignited a stream of research named trait theory. It was theorized that these innate abilities were related to both leadership emergence and leader effectiveness (DeChurch et al., 2010). Judge et al. (2002) examined the big five traits of neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness, but found limited support for his hypotheses. Zaccaro (2007) concluded "despite the long history of the trait-based approach and its recent resurgence, a consensus about the role of leader traits, the magnitude and mechanisms of their influence, and the determining role of leadership situations has remained elusive (p. 14)."

The trait approach left researchers frustrated with the lack of empirical support, and they began to consider what effective leaders actually do, instead of attempting to isolate who leaders are. This led to the second broad path of research; namely the behavioral perspective. During the late 1940s, Ohio State University, University of Michigan and Harvard University conducted major research studies, and a number of leader behaviors were identified and empirically found to be significant antecedents to leadership effectiveness. Chief among these behaviors were individualized consideration and initiating structure. The former refers to leaders' sensitivity to the needs and feelings of their followers, and the latter focuses on the leader's attention to the task organization of the followers' activities. The studies found positive linkages between these factors and

many important organizational outcomes including subordinate performance, group and organizational performance, subordinate job attitudes, and turnover (e.g., House and Aditya, 1997; Judge, Piccolo and Iles, 2004). Judge, et al (2004) found individualized consideration has a stronger relationship to satisfaction, motivation and leader effectiveness than does initiating structure, and that initiating structure has an insignificant, yet stronger linkage to follower and group performance than does individualized consideration. Further, their meta-analytic review found a positive, yet weak and inconsistent relationship between these behaviors. Based upon these findings, researchers concluded that leader traits and leader behaviors (i.e., initiating structure and individualized consideration) while important, failed to reveal consistent linkages to leader effectiveness. This realization coupled with Stogdill's (1948) suggestion than a leader's approach should differ based upon a change in the setting where leaders and followers are embedded, led researchers to focus attention on the role of context (i.e., the situation) as the next major iterative stream of leadership research.

Beginning with the earlier periods of leadership, scholars have been periodically reminded that leadership does not exist in a vacuum. Those subscribing to this perspective suggest that various "contextual" factors such as environment, organization, structure and technology operating within a traditional interpretation of a systems framework, are necessary considerations if we are to gain a deeper understanding of leadership (e.g., House & Aditya, 1997). Osborn, Hunt and Jauch (2002) assert, "One cannot separate the leader(s) from the context any more than one can separate a flavor from a food (p. 797)". Contingency models of leadership explore the appropriate style based upon the context of situations where leaders and followers come together to work

and interact. Examples of seminal works in this category of leadership include the Contingency Theory of Leadership (Fiedler, 1957), an examination of the three dimensions (leader-member relations, task structure and position power) having the most influence on situational favorability for a leader; the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership (House, 1971) focused on how a leader influences his or her followers' perceptions of their personal and work goals, along with their paths to achieving those goals. Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) Situational Theory of Leadership or Life Cycle Theory focuses on a leader's ability to assess the followers' readiness to benefit from supportive relationship or task behaviors, apply the appropriate leadership style based upon the previous needs and skills assessment, then monitor and adjust the style applied based upon the follower's maturity level. While these contingency theories advanced our understanding of "what works when," the study of leadership to this point was predominantly viewed from the perspective of the leader, and the follower and followership enjoyed much less visibility. Based upon Stogdill's (1948) earlier observations suggesting leadership appeared to be a working relationship among group members and not the result of position power or a combination of innate traits, researchers were reminded to investigate the relational aspects of leadership (e.g., Heller and Van Til, 1982; Hollander, 1993). This suggestion and subsequent reminders helped to trigger a stream of scholarly research into the fair exchange between leaders and members, known as Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory.

LMX theory both describes and prescribes leadership based upon the strength and quality of the dyadic relationship a leader forms with each of his or her subordinates, and examines the linkages among people rather than simply the people themselves. Graen and

Uhl-Bien (1995) found that depending upon the strength of the relationship between leader and follower in a team or group setting, the follower could become a part of the in-group or find themselves as part of the out-group. “In-group members are highly trusted, motivated performers who the leader responds to with greater attention and consideration than he or she allocates to members of the out-group. Out-group subordinates have a more transactional low-quality relationship” (DeChurch et al., 2010, p. 1071). High quality LMX relationships have been found positively related to less turnover, more positive performance evaluations, higher frequency of promotions and feelings of energy in employees at work (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993). This focus on transactions (i.e., exchanges) between leader and follower provides a clear contrast to the leader-centric nature of trait, behavioral and contingency approaches. Given this shift in focus and after nearly seventy years of leadership research, the last two decades of the twentieth century through the early part of the twenty-first century found organizations grappling to manage change (i.e., mergers and acquisitions, downsizing and right-sizing, etc.), implement strategic advantages, develop processes for innovation, strengthen workforce engagement, and reduce their geographical boundaries (Pierce and Newstrom, 2011). These organizational mandates helped to spark the next major stream of scholarship focused on a leadership model resulting in followers’ going above and beyond expectations and accomplishing the extraordinary based upon their admiration of, and trust in, the leader; namely, transformational leadership.

James Burns leveraged prior literature on traits, leadership styles, contextual forces and LMX theory, and introduced the transformational and transactional approach

to leadership. Transformational leadership explains the distinctive relationship leaders enjoy with their followers, which causes them to look beyond their own self-interests, and exert extra effort to result in exceptional levels of accomplishment and achievement for the collective. Transactional leaders focus on inspiring employees by incenting desired behaviors with relevant rewards (Burns, 1978; Waldman, Bass, & Einstein, 1987; Yammarino and Dubinsky, 1994). While Burns (1978) considered leadership to be a dimensional construct based upon his belief that managers could be distinctly classified by their behavioral tendency to either engage in transactions with followers, or help to initiate their transformation, Bass (1985) viewed transformational and transactional leadership as complementary constructs, and proposed the Full Range of Leadership Theory as a way of encompassing previous leadership theories and models, and to stimulate fellow leadership scholars to further refine the theory (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

Full Range of Leadership Theory (FRLT)

The FRLT is a profile of the frequency with which a leader displays components of transformational, transactional and non-leadership behaviors, commonly referred to as leadership styles (Bass, 2000) in his or her interactions with followers. It is a version of vertical leadership, or leadership enacted by one appointed to act in the role of leader within the boundaries of the team, and for the benefit of the team (Pierce and Newstrom, 2010), yet the FRLT is a model of leader behaviors whether or not a given leader has responsibility for a team. This theory originated out of the argument that the transactional leadership style is focused too narrowly on how leaders influence followers through the exchange of rewards for desired actions (Bass, 1985). As a result, transactional models of

leadership are argued to fall short of building the elements necessary to achieve the full potential of a leaders' organizational workforce, and viewing leadership through a broader theoretical lens provides a more comprehensive view of leadership. When leadership focuses on the rewards for performing certain actions or for doing one's job, this is referred to as transactional leadership in its constructive form. In its corrective form, transactional leaders focus on actively setting standards, and additionally, may be seen as management actions taken to ensure the related tasks are performed (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Grounded in the notion that the relationship between leader and subordinate is based on a series of exchanges or "if – then" deals between the parties, the leader will use his or her behavior to overcome any deficits in direction and satisfaction that the subordinate's job and work environment fails to provide (Den Hartog, Van Muijen and Koopman, 1997).

Transformational leadership focuses on the intangibles necessary to motivate those in the organization to make changes that broaden, deepen and elevate their individual performance for the benefit of the team. It is comprehensive and relies on stimulating the intrinsic motivations of the followers. As such, transformational leaders are expected to develop and communicate a compelling vision for the future that inspires large numbers of people to function at higher levels than previously imagined, bring together teams with the right blend of skills and knowledge, manage those team with a balance between drive and support, and continue to maintain transactional excellence during the process of transformation (Den Hartog et al., 1997). Several findings suggest a combination of both transformational and transactional leadership is predictive of both cohesion and performance depending upon the context (e.g., Curphy, 1992; Carless et al.,

1995). In contrast, each leadership approach utilizes a different motivational path, and they both move toward a different type of goal. Similarly, both transactional and transformational leaders are active leaders that intervene and try to prevent problems. Further, Keller (2006) found that transformational leaders could use a transactional approach when necessary, but their dominant perspective focused on using their influence to articulate a compelling future, relate to their people as individuals with unique needs, give pep talks to inspire and energize, stimulate awareness and problem solving by asking intellectually engaging questions, and inspire them to surpass the status quo.

The original theory proposed by Bass was composed of six leadership sub-dimensions; four transformational and two transactional factors. The theory was later expanded to nine factors: five transformational factors (idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behavior, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration), three transactional factors (contingent reward, active management by exception, passive management by exception) and one nontransactional (laissez-faire) leadership factor (Hater & Bass, 1988; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). Variations of Bass' (1985) model have been proposed over the years, but a nine-factor framework consisting of transformational, transactional, and passive leadership styles has been widely used.

In sum, the FRLT is a research-based and validated leadership paradigm, found effective as a lens to view and assess leadership development in combination with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) survey tool. Some scholars argue it is the premier leadership paradigm (Judge and Piccolo, 2004), currently drawing more use as a leadership theory or model than any other (Yukl, 2010). This increasing interest in the

FRLT and the accompanying MLQ is perhaps due to its application of assessing the behaviors of two primary factions. The first is composed of those in Masters of Business Administration programs, organizational leadership development courses, management consultants and trainers and is composed of those without the responsibility for leading teams. Another possibility for the increased interest in the FRLT is perhaps consistent with the rise in the organizational and scholarly need to empirically assess the current, context-specific leadership behaviors of those entrusted with team leadership.

Team Leadership

Team leadership is defined as the "ability to direct and coordinate the activities of other team members, assess team performance, assign tasks, develop team knowledge, skills, and abilities, motivate team members, plan and organize, and establish a positive atmosphere" (Salas et al., 2005, p. 560). The central duty of an organizational leader is to influence the efforts of followers for the overall benefit of the firm (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001). Research into team leadership has risen in importance as the organizational reliance on teams continues to increase (Lorinkova, Pearsall and Sims, 2013). Further, according to Raelin (2004), organizations in the United States spend approximately 50 billion dollars each year on leadership training with the desired outcome of helping their managers, executives and future leaders learn to positively influence their teams of subordinates as they help guide their respective organization toward its targets and objectives.

The most common conceptualizations of leadership include four elements as central to its definition: leadership (a) is a process, (b) entails influence, (c) occurs within

a group setting or context, and (d) involves achieving goals that reflect a common vision (Northouse, 2004; Shaw, Duffy and Stark, 2000; Shortell and Kaluzny, 2006). This combination of elements establishes leadership as an essential feature of social groups, and observers draw parallels between a group's performance and its leadership as being responsible for a groups' level of success. The context of leadership in teams has enjoyed considerable attention in the research literature across a plethora of disciplines ranging from military (Hardy, et al., 2010), education (Purvanova and Bono, 2009), psychology (Gibson, et al., 2009), management (Carpenter, 2004), healthcare (Judge and Ryman, 2001) to nursing (Cummings, et al., 2009). Given the organizational role and overall importance of executive leaders, research into the full breadth of leadership in the unstudied context of sports is necessary and important to explore boundary conditions and inform future organizational leaders.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a process of engagement between people during which a connection is made and both the level of motivation and morality of leader and follower are raised. Initially termed "charisma", the original scale was later separated into two distinct sub-facets: idealized attributes; character qualities that employees attribute to the leader, and idealized behaviors; a leader's charismatic actions directed toward a set of values, beliefs, and a sense of mission (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass and Riggio, 2006). This higher order construct of leadership is composed of five distinct components: idealized influence attribute, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation,

intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio et al., 1999; Antonakis et al., 2003). Leaders attain idealized influence by evoking feelings of integrity, trust, and respect in employees, who ultimately view them as role models. Idealized influence attribute focuses on the socialized charisma of the leader, and the perceptions of a leaders' self-confidence, strength and whether or not they are focused on a set of high ethical ideals and moral standards; idealized influence behaviors are those things the leader does to earn such attributions (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass and Riggio, 2006). Inspirational motivation involves energizing followers by providing optimism, clarifying goals and articulating an idealized, achievable vision that helps to create meaning, mutual understanding, and challenge to the work of subordinates. Intellectual stimulation is defined as the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions and encourages followers to question the status quo, take risks, see problems differently, endeavor fresh approaches to old situations and solicit followers' ideas (Antonakis et al., 2003; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Yukl, 1999). When leaders display individualized consideration, they pay attention to individual follower's concerns and needs, engage in helping relationships (i.e., mentoring, advising, coaching) to benefit followers and foster a supportive environment to allow for individual growth and self-actualization (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Transformational Leadership and Team Cohesion

Team cohesion (also known as group cohesiveness) is defined as a "psychological state, which enables a collection of people to experience a unity of feeling and purpose and to work in harmony toward a common goal" (Hartman, 1981, p. 255). Commonly

referred to as bonding, cohesion is representative of the motivational state of a group. Cohesion research notes a variety of different conceptualizations, beginning with early researchers who conceptualized cohesion as a unitary construct. For example, Goodman, et al. (1987) defined cohesion as commitment of members to the group's task, and Gross and Martin (1952) defined cohesion as the group shared commitment or attraction to the group task or goal (cf. Hackman, 1976). Festinger (1950) took a multidimensional approach to cohesion and was the first to offer member attraction, group activities, and prestige or group pride as factors. Mikalachki (1969) was the first to posit social and task cohesion as distinct factors, and this two-factor model became the focus of several cohesion studies. For example, Dion and Evans (1992) pointed out that distinguishing between the instrumental (task) and affective (social) aspects of cohesion is a significant event in furthering this field of study. Further, Zaccaro and McCoy (1988) found both aspects of cohesion are required when groups must interact to succeed on a group task. Social cohesion is described as attraction to the group or the positive valence of the group and its goal (Zaccaro and McCoy, 1988), and is focused on the interpersonal components of team cohesion. Task cohesion is described as the members' interest in the goals of the group. Studying team cohesion along these dimensions aligns with this study's examination of its relationship to leadership styles. Whether leadership focuses on the traits or the behaviors of leaders, an assessment of both the task and social dimensions is encompassed.

Cohesion is considered an important gauge of the strength of relationship among team members. Research demonstrates that cohesive groups generally seem to outperform non-cohesive groups, have greater job and personal satisfaction (McGrath,

1984), and that in general, group cohesion has positive effects on an individual's contribution to a group (Carron et al., 2002). Findings also demonstrate the positive effects of cohesion whether in individualistic or collectivist societies, or in intercultural contexts (Wendt et al., 2009). Carless, Mann, and Wearing (1995) found that group cohesion mediated the relationship between leadership style and bank unit performance. Given these positive outcomes, developing team cohesion is an important aspect of team management. Examining a leader's effect upon the cohesion of the group and eventually to team performance helps to play an important role in leveraging these for greater scholarly understanding and organizational utility (Druskat and Wheeler, 2003). Families that are not cohesive tend to operate under an individualistic paradigm (Lansberg and Astrachan, 1994). Indeed, research has shown that cohesive top management teams experience the least amount of relationship conflict (Ensley and Pearce, 2001) because cohesive groups demonstrate more trust, are less suspicious, and have cooperative group norms (Ensley et al., 2002).

An important mechanism transformational leaders use to strengthen cohesion is their influence to help group members realign their personal values according to their transformational leader's vision and goals. This creates strong values of internalization, cooperation, and congruence among followers (Jung and Avolio, 2000; Shamir et al., 1993), perhaps due to the leaders' ability to relate individually to team members and remind them to assert themselves intellectually to help change the status quo. The result of this influence is the tendency to develop a strong sense of shared group vision, and this group vision in turn helps to amplify group cohesion. The aspects of shared vision and strong group identity also help transformational leaders further empower group members

to accomplish their goals without the need to closely monitor followers' work. House and Shamir (1993) argued that transformational leaders arouse the affiliation motive among followers by the use of inspirational motivation, which can drive followers to become more cohesive and perform effectively. Following this logic, the following hypotheses are proposed related to transformational leadership:

H1a: Idealized influence (Attribute) is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.

H2a: Idealized influence (Behavior) is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.

H3a: Inspirational motivation is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.

H4a: Intellectual stimulation is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.

H5a: Individualized consideration is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.

Transformational Leadership and Team Performance

The link between leadership and team performance has been the source of several studies. Most of this research has focused on the organizational outcomes of a specific leadership style, such as performance and efficiency (e.g., Harter et al., 2002; Howell and Avolio, 1993). A meta-analysis of 63 empirical studies found that about 12% of the variance in team performance was associated with task-focused leadership and 10% of the variance was attributed to developmentally focused leadership (Kozlowski and Ilgen, 2006). Leadership makes a difference for teams: Past research has found leaders'

emotional displays (e.g., Van Kleef et al., 2009), behaviors (e.g., Hoffman and Lord, 2013) and values (e.g., Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum and Kuenzi, (2012) have an effect on the performance of teams.

Transformational leadership is characterized by an ability to bring about greater follower performances by setting higher expectations and motivating the follower to address more difficult work challenges (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998). Leaders are able to inspire these higher levels of performance because of their ability to connect in part with followers' individual needs, aspirations and abilities, and influence them to put the good of the organization ahead of their individual desires (Avolio et al., 2009; Bass et al., 2003). The primary mechanism for enabling higher team performance is the leader's ability to create a safe environment where the status quo is challenged and growth is supported (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Whether at the individual (Hater and Bass, 1988), group (Sosik et al., 1997) or organizational / business unit level (Howell and Avolio, 1993), those rated as transformational managers were perceived to have higher performance because of their attention to the developmental desires of followers along with providing opportunities for personal growth, accomplishment and ensuring the intellectual stimulation of followers.

Therefore, it follows that:

H1b: Idealized influence (Attribute) is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

H2b: Idealized influence (Behavior) is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

H3b: Inspirational motivation is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

H4b: Intellectual stimulation is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

H5b: Individualized consideration is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is defined as a process of leader-subordinate exchange, and includes three first-order factors: 1) contingent reward, 2) active management by exception and 3) passive management by exception. Contingent reward refers to leader behaviors focused on clarifying role and task requirements and providing followers with implicit or explicit rewards contingent on the fulfillment of contractual obligations (e.g., offering incentives and rewarding good performance). The leader establishes rewards based upon the successful attainment of clarified expectations (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Providing praise and recognition is usually more personal and may involve a combination of transformational leadership and transactional leadership. The broad operational description of management by exception is that the leader waits until the followers' performance problems are serious before responding to them (Bass and Avolio, 1990). This is a reactive behavior that does not explicitly involve an exchange process. The two leadership behaviors dimensions seen as lacking a positive effect are both active and passive management by exception. In the former, the leader monitors followers' behaviors to help avoid error correction. In the latter, the leader waits for problems to arise or noncompliance has occurred before taking corrective action. Researchers have asserted that in order to derive the effectiveness of transformational leadership, leader and follower should have initially developed a transactional relationship (Avolio, 1999). A factor that is likely to benefit from transactional leadership is team cohesion.

Transactional Leadership and Team Cohesion

Leaders demonstrating contingent reward leadership can directly encourage team cohesion by reinforcing individual followers' understanding of what is expected of them, clarifying the rewards of accomplishing these expectations and recognizing the achievement of these goals (Huang et al., 2010; Lyons and Schneider, 2009). By so doing, these leaders can build a base level of trust with the team as he or she reliably executes what has been agreed to over time. Additionally, when clarity exists around expectations and performance objectives, subordinates learn to trust that those expected to perform according to plan will follow through. For example, the transactional leadership of army sergeants was found to contribute to a military unit's level of cohesion (Bass et al., 2003). These interactions are representative of coaching interventions between management and subordinate. Further, researchers posit that transactional contingent reward leadership is needed to establish clear standards and expectations of performance (Bass et al., 2003). The preceding lines of reasoning suggest the following hypothesis related to transactional leadership:

H6a: Contingent reward is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.

Management by exception is considered a corrective form of transactional leadership behavior, and has been found to exist in two sub-dimensions; active and passive (Bass et al., 2003). Leaders who practice active management by exception will monitor follower's activities for performance shortfalls, and then take action to correct these deviations as they occur. In a meta-analysis of leadership literature, Lowe et al.

(1996) found leaders exhibiting these behaviors are associated with lower levels of satisfaction, motivation and poorer performance in their teams. Additionally, management by exception was associated with greater conflict and ambiguity in a study of nurse teams (Stordeur et al., 2001). Leaders focused on management by exception behaviors tend more toward error correction than on employee development, and may be perceived as fostering negativity and a feeling of *playing not to lose rather than playing to win*.

Leaders exhibiting passive management by exception behaviors will initiate corrective steps after notification that deviations have surfaced (Bass et al., 2003). This could be seen as demonstrating behaviors that do not support team cohesion. The negative feedback and reinforcement approach inherent in the leadership behaviors of this approach represent a stark contrast to the positive feedback employed by the practitioners of both transformational and contingent reward leadership. This line of reasoning proposes that team cohesion would be negatively related to both active and passive management-by-exception leadership, which emphasizes mistakes, delays decisions, and avoids taking action until something has gone wrong. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are posited:

H7a: Active management by exception is negatively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.

H8a: Passive management by exception is negatively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.

Transactional Leadership and Team Performance

Transactional leadership is composed of three subdimensions; contingent reward, management by exception-active and management by exception-passive (Hartog et al., 1997). Transactional contingent reward leadership involves a style of influencing followers to *"agree with, accept or comply with the leader in exchange for praise, rewards and resources, or the avoidance of disciplinary action"* (Bass et al., 2003; p. 208). Research suggests that transactional leadership behavior based on contingent rewards positively affects subordinate satisfaction and performance (Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas, and Halpin, 2006) because such leaders make their expectations clear and they recognize achievements that positively contribute to higher levels of effort and performance. Further, in a longitudinal meta-analysis testing transformational and transactional leadership in various contexts, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found the linkage between contingent reward and team performance more significant in a business setting than in either the military, college or public sectors. The authors suggested this result makes sense because contingent reward is resource dependent and ultimately based upon management's ability to deliver upon the promise of rewarding those who comply with stated goals. Given this logical progression and this study's focus on the business setting of action and performing teams, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H6b: Contingent reward is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

Active and passive management by exception are the two corrective sub-dimensions of transactional leadership based on emphasizing the avoidance of errors and the utilization of disciplinary action. In its active form, the leader specifies both the

acceptable and unacceptable range of follower performance, and may initiate disciplinary action to help meet performance standards. Further, the leader provides feedback to correct performance gaps. According to Bass (2000), active management by exception's correlation with effectiveness varies from low positive to low negative. Active management by exception is more positively related to team performance to the extent the leader is able to provide feedback that addresses performance gaps in the monitoring phase instead of initiating disciplinary action.

Passive management by exception is the second corrective sub-dimension of transactional leadership. In this case, the leader reacts to problems by waiting for them to surface before taking corrective steps. Research findings show a negative correlation between passive management by exception and team performance and term it an ineffective leadership behavior (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass, 2000). Based upon this thread of reasoning, the following hypotheses are posited:

H7b: Active management by exception is negatively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

H8b: Passive management by exception is negatively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

Non-Leadership or Laissez-faire

Non-leadership is a behavior typified by avoidance as the leader "avoids making decisions, abdicates responsibility, and does not use their authority" (Antonakis et al., 2003: p. 265) in their interaction with followers. Previous research focused much less attention on this theory of inactive or non-responsive leadership than on the leadership theories (Hinkin & Shrieschriem, 2008) and researchers call for future empirical studies to identify conditions that remedy laissez-faire leadership (Judge and Piccolo, 2004).

Laissez-faire exemplifies the absence of leadership, and this component lay on the passive side of the continuum of leadership. Laissez-faire leadership is one scale that measures non-leadership as one of the nine constructs comprising the full range of leadership theory (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass and Avolio, 1997). These behaviors have also been identified as non-active or non-responsive leadership behaviors (Hinkin and Schriesheim, 2008).

Non-Leadership and Team Cohesion

The principal behavior exemplifying laissez-faire leadership is the lack of leader response to subordinates' needs or to outcomes of their performance (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). This form of leadership provides no support to followers' need to understand the standards, expectations or progression toward the attainment of acceptable performance. This gap in support could help explain Avolio's (1999) findings, which demonstrate both laissez-faire leadership and management by exception-passive to be weak and lacking in effectiveness. This non-directional, non-supportive behavior is responsible for the lack of direction, focus and feedback that proves critical in cohesive teams. Thus:

> H9a: Laissez-faire is negatively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.

Non-Leadership and Team Performance

The principal factors of non-leadership are reward omission and punishment omission. Reward omission is defined as leader nonreinforcement of subordinates'

desired behavior. Punishment omission is defined as leader nonresponse to subordinate undesired behavior.

Research findings suggest that non-leadership behaviors are counterproductive to followers' perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Bass et al., 2003) principally because of the leader's non-response to follower performance that is either good or poor. Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008) found support for the importance of providing followers with feedback to edify good or reprimand poor performance. Additionally, their research cited support for the negative consequences of non-leadership behaviors, and followers describe these types of behaviors as **"**highly dissatisfying**"** (Avolio, 1999, p. 55). In contrast to the leaders' response to either good or poor performance typified by contingent reward and active and passive management by exception, laissez-faire leader behavior is unrelated to follower performance (Hinkin and Shrieschriem, 2008) Further, the leader could be hesitant in taking action, avoidant in making decisions, or not available when needed. Some researchers noted "the absence of leadership (laissez-faire leadership) is nearly as important as the presence of other forms of leadership" (Judge and Piccolo, 2004, pg. 765), while others noted the deleterious effects of nonresponse to good performance are likely to exceed the negative effects of poor performance. Although the unit of analysis for these findings are at the individual level, it is reasonable to hypothesize that performance will suffer when leaders demonstrate non-leadership behaviors in a team context for any substantive length of time. These findings lead to the following hypothesis:

H9b: Laissez-faire is negatively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

Team Cohesion and Team Performance

The relationship between cohesion and firm performance has been examined in several papers yet the linkage between these variables in the context of action teams has yet to be examined. Various studies have sought to understand whether leadership has a direct and significant relationship with performance, or if that relationship is perhaps related through a group process such as team sports. The research findings demonstrate mixed empirical results depending upon the context of the study, the unit of analysis and whether cohesion is measured as a unitary or multidimensional construct (Bass, 1990; Casey-Campbell and Martens, 2009; Lieberson and O'Connor, 1972; Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977; Thomas, 1988). Within the team sports context, research has found that coaches who attend actively to skill development, motivational communication and social support of players tend to have more cohesive teams (Gardner et al., 1996; Turman, 2003). Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson (2003) found support that transformational leadership is related to cohesion and that cohesion is related to performance. Further, in a replicated study of 94 top management teams, Barrick, et al. (2007) found higher team performance leading to greater firm outcomes when more interdependent teams demonstrated higher levels of cohesion and communicated more, and that more independent teams enjoyed higher performance when the levels of communication and cohesion were lower.

Team cohesion leads to better performance from a theoretical perspective as well. Organizations whose leaders are adept at fostering a sense of esprit de corps are generally referred to as being "tight-knit" or having "chemistry." Given this example, a virtuous circle of reciprocation among team members is evident and unforced. Sometimes,

focusing on a highly desired outcome (e.g., winning a championship, achieving new sales goals) can cause members to bond and rally toward objectives important to the team. On other occasions, playing through injuries, or veterans exhibiting behaviors that go above and beyond their individual needs to help their junior teammates, can trigger an extra effort so that members don't disappoint the team. Frequently, a series of these instances converge to strengthen team cohesion. Given both the empirical outcomes and the theoretical perspectives presented above, a reasonable assumption is that the levels of team cohesion inherent in the context of sports teams will be related to team performance, and the following hypothesis is posited:

H10: Team cohesion is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.

In sum, the current research examines the nature of the relationship between leadership styles, team cohesion and performance at the group level of analysis in the context of action and performing teams. Specifically, this study seeks to empirically examine the strength and direction of the relationships between leadership styles and team performance, as well as between leadership styles and team cohesion.

METHODS

Research at Kennesaw State University that involves human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (IRB, 2010). Prior to the start of data collection efforts, the Institutional Review Board approval request form and training certificate along with the consent documents and survey instruments for this study were submitted to the review board for review. Requisite approvals were received upon the initial review.

Data Collection and Sample

The sample for this study is a specific group of sportswriters from four American professional sports leagues: the MLB, NBA, NFL and the NHL. These sportswriters are commonly referred to as "beatwriters", meaning they are assigned by a newspaper or magazine to a specific team or beat for total coverage throughout a season or throughout a year. These specialized sports writers are responsible for gathering and disseminating team information through either print or electronic news media outlets – including social media. In addition to game day coverage, sportswriters are responsible for documenting what happens before and after each game, including team news, player transactions and coaching changes. They write feature stories on players and coaches, and provide insight on team trends to help the interested public understand everything relevant to the team (Izard, Culbertson, & Lambert, 1994). This method follows Lindsley et al. (1995) and recognizes that beatwriters may have access to the collective mind of the group. The beatwriters responding to the survey are likely to be members of the beatwriters association for their respective sports.

This group of respondents was chosen for two primary reasons. First, the job of a beatwriter is to ensure accurate and objective media coverage of their assigned sports team on a daily basis. Second, beat writers cover coaches and players in both formal (game day and press conferences) and informal (clubhouse and practice sessions) situations, which gives them an ideal and unique perspective to note the behaviors demonstrated by the head coach or manager of the team to which they are assigned. Given these realities, it is reasonable to assume that beatwriters are a valid representative

group of subject matter experts qualified to give an informed opinion on the observed leadership behaviors exhibited by the head coaches or managers of their respective teams.

Using an electronic survey tool, questionnaires were distributed by email to 334 beatwriters in the four targeted, American professional sports leagues. The number of responses from this initial distribution was eight after a week. The secondary search for alternative email addresses revealed the majority of sportswriters have multiple email accounts ranging from personal to professional. Further, Twitter profiles for each sportswriter were located, and of the 334 writers, fewer than thirty were found to have more than one Twitter account. Given this realization, subsequent requests and reminders for survey participation were begun with the use of Twitter. A follow-up email including a link to the questionnaire was sent to each respondent as they agreed to participate in this research from the Twitter request.

The use of social media to engage this group of survey respondents represents a novel approach, and it produced a positive effect. Further, Twitter limits message length to 140 -characters or less. This restriction encourages the use of parsimonious messages to assure the receiver of confidentiality, communicate survey completion dates, and make requests for current contact information. For this sample, 334 sportswriter surveys were solicited. Eight responses resulted from the original email request. One hundred-twelve additional responses were received by utilizing Twitter to contact beatwriters and obtain their functional email address. Complete surveys or nearly complete surveys were returned by 90 beatwriters for an overall 27% response rate.

The subjects of this study are the head coaches responsible for leading teams in four American major professional sports (Major League Baseball-MLB; National

Basketball Association-NBA; National Football League-NFL; and the National Hockey League-NHL) from the 2000-01 through 2010-11 seasons. Choosing the most recent time frame with available data accurately reflects the current state of leadership in teams. All teams in these leagues have a preseason and regular season. Based upon win-loss records, qualifying teams enter into postseason playoffs, and the finalists in each conference compete for a championship in their respective leagues. Appendix B lists all teams comprising the universe for each sports league, and the names of teams used in this study appear bolded. Appendix C lists the responses by sport. All information is obtained from a variety of league and media sources including the statistical repository for each of these leagues.

There are several reasons for choosing sports as the setting for this study. First, sports provide a good setting to test the proposed theoretical arguments (Wolfe et al., 2005), because of the high correlation of responsibilities and occupational challenges faced by head coaches and managers of professional sports teams and leaders in business organizational settings, their involvement in setting strategy and responsibility for challenging goals with a direct connection to organizational outcomes. Prior scholarly work suggests that professional sports coaches will provide a reasonable proxy for leaders in business settings (Cannella and Rowe, 1995).

Second, all teams operate within a framework of the rules governing each of these particular sports. These standardized rules are enforced with league-certified officials, and league employees maintain the official statistics for each sport. The rules within each of these sports *"...eliminate many factors that would otherwise substantially increase the complexity and reduce the power of this study, for instance, the length of each NBA*

regulation game is 48 minutes playing time; five players always play at a time; and the length of the regular season is 82 games" (Berman et al., 2002, p. 20).

Third, sports teams have objective and easily interpretable performance measures (Pfeffer and Davis-Blake, 1986) and this avoids problems associated with perceptual measures of team performance. Further, because of the public and wide appeal of sports, a considerable amount of objective data (i.e., win-loss records, payroll information, etc.), measured accurately and precisely, is available on the key study constructs. Fourth, Keidel (1987) has suggested that the lessons learned about sports teams transfer to organizational teams. In fact, numerous organizational scholars have successfully studied organizational phenomena in the context of sports teams (e.g., Pfeffer and Davis-Blake, 1986; Hofmann et al., 1992; Staw and Hoang, 1995; Werner and Mero, 1999; Humphrey et al., 2009).

Measures

This study utilized survey items adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) to measure the full range leadership theory in the context of action and performing teams. Because this study strives for parsimony (as well as adequate item content), a maximum of four items per dimension are used following the method of Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008).

To examine nine leadership dimensions that constitute what is now called the "full range leadership theory" (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio & Bass, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 1997), Bass and his associates (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1997) developed Form 5X of the MLQ. This questionnaire contains five scales that are designed to measure

aspects of transformational leadership. The scales include idealized influence (attribute), idealized influence (behavior), individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation. The MLQ-5X also contains three scales that assess transactional leadership; contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception. One final scale measures laissez-faire, or non-leadership (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1997). Sample items include the following: "The head coach talks optimistically about the future" (inspirational motivation) and "Instills pride in team members' for being associated with him" (idealized influence). The scales are reported in Appendix A.

All measures were either taken from objective archival data or adapted from previous studies and applied to the professional sports context. Further, the survey was pilot tested on a small sample (n=6) of beat writers to test for survey clarity, face validity, and comprehensiveness. Minor changes were made to the survey based on comments from the pilot test. For example, in the pilot study, offers of gift cards and donations to a beatwriter's favorite charity were used to induce greater participation, but because feedback indicated a negative effect, these offers were not repeated in the main study.

Team Performance (Dependent Variable)

The win-loss records and percentages of games won during the tenure of a head coach are used to operationalize team performance. This is similar to the objective measure used in previous studies of succession (Pfeffer and Blake, 1986). This objective outcome measure was chosen for two main reasons. First, according to Scott (1977), outcome measures, if and when they are available and unambiguously defined, are better

than process or structure measures because they get at the concept of effective performance more directly. Second, statistics for the four major professional sports in the United States are maintained for each year of play including preseason, regular season and postseason. The win-loss records of sports teams are vigorously maintained and readily accessible. In sum, sports teams have a clear measurement of success, their team winning percentage (Kahn, 1993).

Full Range of Leadership (Independent Variable)

In the present study, beatwriters responded to adapted items from previously validated scales to assess the coach's leadership style during his tenure with a given team. Past models of leadership have been unable to explain the entire breadth of leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1990). To address this shortcoming, the most current iteration (Form 5X) of the most commonly used scale of transformational and transactional leadership, the 36-item Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)[iii] was employed. An additional nine items appear in the original questionnaire, but were not applicable for use in this study because these items measure the outcomes of leadership behavior rather than leadership styles. Following the method used in Avolio & Bass (1990), 20 items were used to assess four theoretically related, substantive sub-dimensions of transformational leadership including idealized influence-attribute (4 items, alpha = .80), idealized influence-behavior (4 items, alpha = .66), inspirational motivation (4 items, alpha = .84), intellectual stimulation (4 items, alpha = .80), and individualized consideration (4 items, alpha = .72). Sample items include the following: "The head coach talks optimistically about the future" (inspirational motivation) and

"Instills pride in team members' for being associated with him" (idealized influence). The alpha of the twenty items equals .92.

A total of eight items measure the two subdimensions of transactional leadership to include contingent reward (4 items, alpha = .69) and management by exception – active (4 items, alpha = .75). An example of the contingent reward measure is "The head coach makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved". Management by exception – passive (4 items, alpha = .69) and laissez-faire (4 items, alpha = .81) combine to form the non-leadership subdimensions for the "full range" of leadership styles. An example of management by exception – passive is "The head coach shows that he is a firm believer in 'if it ain't broke, don't fix it'."

Perceived Team Cohesion

Perceived team cohesion was measured following the method used by Michalisin et al., (2007). Specifically, six adapted items were used to assess the two theoretically related substantive subdimensions of team cohesion, which are cohesion in task processes (3 items), and cohesion in social processes (3 items) for an alpha of .79. Sample items include: "His teams enjoyed working together" (task cohesion), and "His teams wasted a lot of time" (social cohesion). Two of these six items were reverse coded.

Control Variables

A number of factors that have been either theoretically or empirically found to be related to team performance were controlled for. *Coach Age* – Age has been found to have an effect on the risk orientation of a coach, thereby influencing one's approach to strategic decisions (Wiersema and Bantel, 1992). This variable is operationalized as the

coach's age during the year of team performance, and was, along with the other objective archival measures, collected from official team statistics, particularly www.nfl.com, www.mlb.com, www.nhl.com, and www.nba.com.

Coaching history – defined as total years coaching in the professional ranks and otherwise. Coaching history is further dimensionalized as both head coach and other coaching.

Education level – Organizations whose CEOs had above-average levels of education were found to help their respective companies achieve significant changes in diversification strategy (Wiersema and Bantel, 1992). This suggests that manager educational level may be positively related to team performance. Educational level is operationalized as total years of education, and was collected from coach profiles and biographies.

Family ownership – Many sports franchises are family owned and past research has found the combination of family involvement and interactions may provide those firms a competitive advantage (Habbershon et al., 2003). Family firm status is the control variable used to classify firms as either family or non-family owned. This study defines family ownership as voting control by three or fewer family members. To remain consistent with the approach of Barnett et al. (2009), family firms are coded as 1, and nonfamily firms are coded as 0.

Team payroll – Amount of team payroll is chosen as a control variable because firms with a higher payroll are assumed to have and afford higher quality players, which can influence team performance. Thus, team payroll is a proxy measure for the quality of

the team members. Team payroll will be measured using the total stated dollar amount per team as listed in the almanacs of each sport.

Team size – In a study of sports teams composed of different sizes, smaller, three-member groups were found to be more task-cohesive than other teams composed of nine members. Further, groups of intermediate size were found to be the most socially cohesive (Widmeyer et al., 1990). This finding suggests team size has a relationship to both task and social cohesion, and should be controlled. Team size will be measured using the standard roster sizes of teams in each sport.

Analytical Method

Hierarchical Ordinary Least Squares regression was chosen to examine the relationship between leadership styles and the measurement of team cohesion, between leadership styles and team performance, and between team cohesion and team performance. The relationship between each of the full range of leadership styles and team cohesion was first examined. The main effects of leadership styles and team performance were examined next. Then, the relationship between team cohesion and team performance were examined. In all regression equations, coach age, coach history, family ownership, education level, team payroll and team size were entered as control variables.

RESULTS

Table 1 reports descriptive statistics for the variables of interest, including means and standard deviations. The correlations among all the variables in the model are

displayed in Table 2, and the alphas for the variables of interest are noted in the diagonals of Table 2. The average age of the coaches in this sample was 50.5 (*SD* = 7.7). The average coach history was 6.5 years (*SD* = 6.37) and 86% of the teams were identified as family owned. The average education of all coaches was 15.4 years (SD = 1.9). The average payroll of these teams was $75,534.50 million (USD). The coaches won an average of fifty-one percent of their regular season games (SD = 11.3).

TABLE 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Variables of Interest

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Performance	51.47	11.29	20.83	75.89
Coach Age	50.46	7.70	33	74
Coach History	6.50	6.37	1	30
Family Ownership	.86	.35	-	-
Coach Education	15.42	1.90	12	18
Payroll [a]	$75.50	$27.00	$14.99	$1,311.90
Team Size	30.53	.58	12	53
Idealized Influence-Attribute	3.93	.82	1	5
Idealized Influence-Behavior	4.11	.64	1	5
Inspirational Motivation	4.03	.83	1	5
Intellectual Stimulation	3.32	.81	1	5
Individual Consideration	3.84	.75	1	5
Contingent Reward	3.99	.68	1	5
MBE-Active	3.38	.81	1	5
MBE-Passive	2.57	.83	1	5
Laissez-faire	1.77	.80	1	5
Cohesion	3.78	.63	1	5

[a] USD millions.

Table 2 reports the correlations among the variables. The high positive significant correlations among the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership (idealized influence attribute, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration) are expected and consistent with those typically displayed by the best leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Further the five sub-dimensions are all significantly and negatively related to passive management by exception and lasses-faire leadership as expected due to both leadership those behaviors occupying the corrective axis of transactional leadership. Further, all five transformational leadership sub-dimensions were significantly and positively correlated with cohesion, but only individualized consideration was significantly related to performance. Contingent reward was significantly negatively related to cohesion. Both passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership were significantly and negatively correlated with cohesion, while both were negatively correlated with team performance only laissez-faire leadership was significant. The negative correlations were expected because passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership occupy the reactive and avoidant axis of leadership respectively, and both have been identified as ineffective leadership behaviors (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass, 2000).

TABLE 2

Correlations Among the Variables of Interest

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	Performance	-																
2	Coach Age	.13*	-															
3	Coach History	.23*	.43**	-														
4	Family Ownership	.14	-.11	.03	-													
5	Coach Education	-.10	-.16	.02	.11	-												
6	Payroll	.06	.01	.22*	.28**	.27**	-											
7	Team Size	.00	.04	-.01	.27**	.18	.63**	-										
8	Idealized Influence Attribute	.14	.15	.13	-.01	.01	-.12	-.11	*.80*									
9	Idealized Influence Behavior	-.02	-.09	-.05	-.02	.15	-.01	-.16	.60**	*.66*								
10	Inspirational Motivation	-.03	.01	.03	-.04	.10	-.03	-.08	.66**	.77**	*.84*							
11	Intellectual Stimulation	.19	-.13	-.13	.10	.03	-.10	-.21	.51**	.62**	.54**	*.80*						
12	Individualized Consideration	.24*	.10	.16	-.03	-.01	-.14	-.21	.71**	.57**	.57**	.65**	*.72*					
13	Contingent Reward	.13	-.01	.06	-.03	.02	-.05	-.22*	.65**	.70**	.60**	.68**	.74**	*.69*				
14	MBE-Active	.16	-.13	-.14	.11	.02	.03	-.09	.12	.32**	.11	.48**	.36**	.34**	*.75*			
15	MBE-Passive	-.08	-.11	-.16	.09	.02	.13	-.03	-.38**	-.30**	-.30**	-.36**	-.45**	-.25*	-.26*	*.69*		
16	Laissez-Faire	-.25*	-.23*	-.22*	-.02	.03	.08	-.02	-.61**	-.53**	-.49**	-.39**	-.55**	-.49**	-.21	.73**	*.81*	
17	Cohesion	.39**	.05	.21*	-.05	-.02	-.11	-.00	.73**	.48**	.51**	.49**	.64**	-.56**	.16	-.47**	-.66**	*.79*

Alphas in diagonal; N = 86 – 90; * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. NOTE: * $p < .05$., ** $p < .01$ † $p < .1$

Table 3 reports the regression results for the relationship between the variables of interest and the dependent variable of team cohesion. Model 1 reports the baseline model containing only the control variables. Model 2 included the main effects of the transformational subdimension of idealized influence - attribute. Model 3 substitutes the variable of idealized influence - behavior. In model 4, the transformational variable of inspirational motivation was substituted. In model 5, intellectual stimulation was substituted. In model 6, individualized consideration was regressed upon the dependent variable of team cohesion. Model 7 of Table 3 displays the results of the transactional variable of contingent reward regressed upon the dependent variable of team cohesion. Model 8 substituted the active management by exception variable, and model 9 shows the regression results of passive management by exception on team cohesion. Finally, model 10 of Table 3 shows the results of laissez faire regressed upon the dependent variable of team cohesion.

Hypothesis 1a predicts a leader's perceived display of idealized influence-attribute behaviors is positively related to team cohesion. In line with this prediction, in model 2 of Table 3, the main effect for idealized influence-attribute is positive and highly significant ($\beta = 0.72$, $p < .001$), thus Hypothesis 1a is supported. Hypothesis 2a predicts a leader's perceived displays of behavior identified as idealized influence-behavior is positively related to team cohesion. In line with this prediction, in model 3 of Table 3, the main effect for idealized influence-behavior is both positive and highly significant ($\beta = 0.54$, $p < .001$), thus Hypothesis 2a is supported. Hypothesis 3a predicts leader's perceived behavioral displays of inspirational motivation are positively related to team cohesion. In line with this prediction, in model 4 of Table 3, the main effect for

inspirational motivation is positive and highly significant ($\beta = 0.51$, $p < .001$), thus Hypothesis 3a is supported. Hypothesis 4a predicts leader's perceived display of intellectual stimulation is positively related to team cohesion. In line with this prediction, in model 5 of Table 3, the main effect for intellectual stimulation is positive and highly significant ($\beta = 0.58$, $p < .001$), thus Hypothesis 4a is supported. Hypothesis 5a predicts leader's perceived display of individualized consideration is positively related to team cohesion. In line with this prediction, in model 6 of Table 3, the main effect for individualized consideration is positive and highly significant ($\beta = 0.65$, $p < .001$), thus Hypothesis 5a is supported.

Hypothesis 6a predicts leader's perceived display of the transactional variable of contingent reward is positively related to team cohesion. As hypothesized, findings show that greater levels of contingent reward are positively related to team cohesion. This result is displayed in model 7 of Table 3, where contingent reward is shown to be both positive and highly significant ($\beta = 0.61$, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis 7a predicts a leader's perceived display of active management by exception behaviors will negatively relate to team cohesion. The resulting beta would have been marginally significant ($\beta = 0.24$) at the .08 level if it were in the specified direction. Although a negative relationship was predicted, these variables were positively correlated. Hence, hypothesis 7a is not supported.

Hypothesis 8a predicts that as leaders are perceived to display passive management by exception behaviors, team cohesion is negatively related. Hypothesis 9a predicts a similar relationship stemming from the perceptions of non-leadership behaviors of laissez-faire. The regression analysis supports both predictions. The coefficients on

both perceived leader behaviors of passive management by exception and laissez-faire to team cohesion are highly significant and negative ($\beta = -0.41$, $p < .001$ and $\beta = -0.65$, $p < .001$, respectively). Results of hypothesis 8a and 9a are reflected in models 9 & 10 of the table below.

TABLE 3

Results of Regression Analyses for Team Cohesion

	Team Cohesion									
Variables [b]	Model 1[a] N=90	Model 2 N=87	Model 3 N=87	Model 4 N=87	Model 5 N=86	Model 6 N=87	Model 7 N=89	Model 8 N=88	Model 9 N=88	Model 10 N=90
Coach Age	.00	.00'	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Coach History	.31'	.23'''	.37'''	.32	.38'''	.24	.31	.39	.23	.19
Family Ownership	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Coach Education	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.04	.00	.00
Payroll	.00'	.00'''	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Team Size	.20	.23'''	.33	.27	.36	.33	.40	.28	.10	.10
Idealized Influence (A)		.72'''								
Idealized Influence (B)			.54'''							
Inspirational Motivation				.51'''						
Intellectual Stimulation					.58'''					
Individual Consideration						.65'''				
Contingent Reward							.61'''			
MBE-Active								.24		
MBE-Passive									-.41'''	
Laissez-Faire										-.65'''
Total R^2	.09	.59'''	.37'''	.36'''	.39'''	.49'''	.45'''	.16	.26'''	.48'''
Adjusted R^2	.02	.55'''	.31'''	.30'''	.34'''	.44'''	.40'''	.09	.19'''	.44'''
ΔR^2 variable	.09	.50'''	.27'''	.26'''	.31'''	.39'''	.35'''	.06	.15'''	.38'''

[a] Standardized betas are reported.
[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.
***p ≤ .001. **p ≤ .01. *p ≤ .05. †p ≤ .10.

Next the relationship between the variables of interest and the dependent variable of team performance was tested also using hierarchical OLS regression. The results are reported in Table 4. Model 1 reports the baseline model containing only the control variables. Model 2 included the main effects of the transformational sub-dimension of idealized influence – attribute, and models 3-10 each substitute the different leadership dimension following the analysis performed in Table 3.

Hypothesis 1b predicts a leader's perceived display of idealized influence-attribute behaviors is positively related to team performance. Model 2 of Table 4, shows the main effect for idealized influence-attribute leadership is positive, but not significant ($\beta = 0.10$), thus Hypothesis 1b is not supported. Hypothesis 2b predicts the perception of a leader's idealized influence-behavior is positively related to team performance. In line with this prediction, in model 3 of Table 4, the main effect for idealized influence-behavior is not significant although positive ($\beta = 0.03$), thus Hypothesis 2b is not supported. Hypothesis 3b predicts the perceptions of a leader's display of inspirational motivation behaviors will be positively related to team performance. Contrary to this prediction, in model 4 of Table 4, the main effect for inspirational motivation is negative with a small effect size ($\beta = -0.02$), thus Hypothesis 3b is not supported. Hypothesis 4b predicts the perceptions of a leader's intellectual stimulation behaviors will be positively related to team performance. In line with this prediction, in model 5 of Table 4, the main effect for intellectual stimulation is significant ($p<.05$) and positive ($\beta = 0.21$), thus Hypothesis 4b is supported. Hypothesis 5b predicts the perceptions of a leader's individualized consideration behaviors are positively related to team performance. In line with this prediction, in model 6 of Table 4, the main effect for individualized

consideration is positive ($\beta = 0.21$) and significant ($p<.05$), thus Hypothesis 5b is supported.

Hypothesis 6b predicts a leader's perceived demonstrations of transactional contingent reward behaviors will be positively related to team performance. The analysis in model 7 shows an R squared of .10 for the overall model. Contingent reward was not found to be a significant predictor of team performance, although the Beta was in the specified direction with a small effect size ($\beta = 0.12$). Thus, Hypothesis 6b is not supported.

Hypothesis 7b predicted a leader's perceived display of active management by exception behaviors would negatively relate to team performance. While a negative relationship for hypothesis 7b was predicted, management by exception – active was found to be positive. Had the correct direction of the effect been specified, it would have been a marginally significant positive predictor of team performance ($p<.10$) with a moderate effect size ($\beta = 0.19$). Thus, Hypothesis 7b is not supported. The R squared of model 8 is 0.12.

Hypothesis 8b predicts a negative relationship between a leader's perceived display of passive management by exception and team performance. The analysis in model 9 shows an R squared of .07 for the overall model. Management by exception – passive was not found to be a significant predictor of team performance, although the Beta was in the specified direction (negative) with a small effect size ($\beta = -0.08$). Thus, Hypothesis 8b is not supported.

Hypothesis 9b predicts the perceptions of a leader's display of laissez-faire behaviors will be negatively related to team performance. The analysis in model 10

shows an R squared of .13 for the overall model. Laissez-faire leadership was found to be negatively related to team performance in the specified direction with a moderate effect size (β = -0.21). Thus, Hypothesis 9b is supported.

TABLE 4

Results of Regression Analyses for Team Performance

	Team Performance									
Variables [b]	Model 1[a] N=90	Model 2 N=87	Model 3 N=87	Model 4 N=87	Model 5 N=86	Model 6 N=87	Model 7 N=89	Model 8 N=88	Model 9 N=88	Model 10 N=90
Coach Age	.00	.00	.00	.05	.05	.04	.03	.05	.05	.01
Coach History	.31`	.29`	.35``	.21†	.23†	.18	.21	.23†	.14	.17
Family Ownership	.16	.15	.18	.15	.14	.16	.16	.09	.18	.15
Coach Education	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Payroll	.00	.00	.00	.02	.03	.03	.00	.00	.06	.07
Team Size	.03	.03	.09	.00	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.10
Idealized Influence (A)		.10								
Idealized Influence (B)			.03							
Inspirational Motivation				-.02						
Intellectual Stimulation					.21*					
Individual Consideration						.21*				
Contingent Reward							.12			
MBE-Active								.19†		
MBE-Passive									-.08	
Laissez-Faire										-.21*
Total R^2	.12	.13	.14†	.09	.14	.14	.10	.12	.07	.13
Adjusted R^2	.05	.05	.06	.01	.06	.06	.02	.04	.00	.06
ΔR^2 variable	.12	.01	.00	.00	.04†	.04†	.01	.03†	.01	.04†

[a] Standardized betas are reported.
[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.
***p ≤ .001. **p ≤ .01. *p ≤ .05. †p ≤ .10.

Table 5 reports the regression results for the effects of team cohesion on team performance. This analysis tests the prediction that team cohesion will be positively related to team performance (H10). To test this relationship, cohesion was used as the independent variable and the measurement of team performance as the dependent

variable. Model 1 of Table 5 includes all control variables. Model 2 adds Team Cohesion. The results show that greater cohesion does lead to better performance ($\beta = 0.39$, $p<.001$), supporting hypothesis H10. Appendix D reports a summary of all the hypotheses tests.

TABLE 5

Regression Results for Relationship
Between Team Cohesion & Team Performance

Variables [b]	Model 1[a]	Model 2
Coach Age	0.03	0.07
Coach History	0.21	0.08
Family Ownership	0.16	0.18*
Coach Education	0.00†	0.00
Payroll	0.02	0.14†
Team Size	0.00	0.00
Cohesion		0.39***
R^2	0.09	0.23***
Adj. R^2	0.02	0.16***
$\Delta R^2_{variable}$	0.09	0.14***

NOTE:
[a] Standardized betas are reported.
[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.
*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. † $p < .10$; $N=90$.

DISCUSSION

Small groups research has shown a relationship between leadership and team performance in a number of studies (e.g., Harter et al., 2002; Howell and Avolio, 1993; Kozlowski and Ilgen, 2006), yet has not differentiated and independently examined the sub-dimensions of leadership styles and performance in the context of sports teams. Using survey data collected from a questionnaire given to beatwriters assigned to sports teams in four major professional sports leagues in the United States, along with the subsequent objective organizational performance data for the head coaches of those teams, this study provides evidence that leadership makes a difference in the context of action and performing teams, and that team cohesion is positively related to team performance.

An interesting finding of this study was the relationship between the transactional leadership style of active management by exception with both team cohesion and team performance. Despite previous research demonstrating a lack of support for contingent punishment behaviors, and the original hypothesis predicting a negative relationship to both dependent variables based upon the previous findings, a positive correlation between a leader's perceived display of active management by exception behaviors and both team cohesion and team performance was found. Leaders displaying active management by exception behaviors tend to focus on monitoring task execution and encouraging followers to actively avoid committing any mistakes. When leaders deliver corrective instruction during the emotionally charged situations where action and performing teams typically perform, it is seen as having a positive effect on team cohesion in that the perception is that all team members are perhaps treated alike, the team realizes "we're all

in this together," and the coach uses these moments to reinforce organizational standards. One questionnaire item for the measurement of this variable asks sportswriters to rate a chosen head coach on their behavioral proclivity to "focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards." Perhaps this behavioral pattern of verbally reminding team members when, where, and how they have deviated from the team's predetermined mission or path, is seen as one that serves to bring the team together rather than ostracize those receiving the verbal punishment. It could also serve to leave an impression upon those peripheral to the contingent punishment by ensuring they heard the importance of adhering to the team standard if the collective is to achieve their desired performance objectives. Further, these performance episodes are repeated in the context of sports, so team members receiving this verbal feedback sometimes have the opportunity to "redeem their mistakes" during the same game. The raters have seen this pattern in sports from high school through college and into the professional ranks, and perhaps view this as acceptable behavior in this context. This would appear to be something different for sports teams in comparison to teams in the business world. In the context of sports teams, these verbal reminders are done in the presence of other team members, but in business, these specific conversational reminders are delivered in one-to-one exchanges between leader and follower.

A second interesting finding of this study was the lack of a relationship between team performance and beatwriters' perceptions of either idealized influence or inspirational motivation behaviors. Originally predicted to be positive, non-significant weak relationships were found. Research that directly maps this leader behavior to team performance is typically aggregated to (and reported as) an overall measure of

transformational leadership. Recognizing that four sports were analyzed at an aggregate level, I conducted a post hoc analysis to determine which sport(s) had the greatest effect upon this unpredicted direction. Because of the small sample sizes, the control variables were not included in this analysis. The results of this analysis appear in Table 6. No major deviations are shown across sports except for idealized influence attribute. The results show that there was a positive effect of idealized influence attribute in football (Beta = .25), but a negative effect in Hockey (Beta = -.16). Given the small sample sizes none of these effects were statistically significant. Nevertheless they indicate the possibility of considerable differences across sports, suggesting that some aspects of the sports context, such as perhaps interdependence, moderates these effects.

TABLE 6

Results by Sport of Post Hoc Analysis of Non-Significant Transformational Leadership Sub-Dimensions and Team Performance

Sports League	Idealized Influence Attribute	Idealized Influence Behavior	Inspirational Motivation	N
Major League Baseball	0.16	-0.09	-0.11	16
National Basketball Association	0.04	-0.15	0.01	26
National Football League	0.25	0.05	-0.07	31
National Hockey League	-0.16	0.07	0.07	15

Note: Standardized betas are reported.
*** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; † $p < .10$.

Our overall findings are consistent with past studies showing that certain leadership styles have a positive relationship with organizational performance in small

groups (e.g., Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson, 2003; Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, and Walumbwa, 2009; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson, 2008). A holistic theory of leadership styles encompassing a construct of non-leadership, combined with a multidimensional measure of team cohesion and a rating of team performance was used. Further, this study is differentiated from past research by using the previously understudied context of sports teams in addition to surveying beatwriters. The sample group was also engaged using the social media platform Twitter, demonstrating the utility of this social media platform for increasing response rates in this context.

Managerial Implications

This study may have managerial implications for organizational practices at both the management and leadership levels, because the findings suggest a greater relationship to performance, and team cohesion when organizational leaders are perceived to have used more transformational leadership behaviors than transactional or non-leadership behaviors. Whether describing or further emphasizing the team vision at press conferences, explaining the delayed rewards of the grueling off-season workout to rookies and veterans alike, or consoling a superstar with a season-ending injury, head coaches as effective leaders have an impact on their organization.

The transactional leadership behavior of active management by exception was expected to be negatively related to both team cohesion and team performance. This prediction was based on the assumption that leaders who practice active management by exception will monitor follower's activities for performance shortfalls, and then take action to correct these deviations as they occur. Because this behavior is directed more toward correcting errors than employee development, previous literature pointed out that

leaders exhibiting these behaviors were identified as having lower motivation, satisfaction and performance on their teams (Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Two possible reasons are speculated for why the opposite effect was found. First, this counterintuitive finding served to highlight the importance of context. This research focused on action and performing teams in the genre of professional sports. Active management by exception behaviors like contingent punishment usually led to negative outcomes. However, in cultures where such behaviors (yelling, punishing, etc.) are acceptable, the findings suggest that they may lead to positive outcomes. One example of a culture of acceptability is the military (Atwater et al, 1997; 1998). Similarly, the culture of professional sports teams may also allow for the acceptance of such perceived behaviors. It is possible that certain organizational cultures exist where such behaviors are considered normal, and active management by exception actually improves performance rather than hinders it.

Second, perceived leadership behaviors were examined by first, expanding the totality of leadership styles to include the full range of leadership, and second, by getting the opinions of journalistic specialists who are assigned the responsibility for observing and reporting on the coaches and players of these sports teams on a daily basis (Izard, et al., 1994). By so doing, beatwriters can provide insights into leaders across a wider range of behaviors, thereby expanding previous perceptions of these behavioral effects depending upon their level of access. Thus, when head coaches corrected errors at times, and provided development during other occasions, the overall perception of error correction was considered to be positively related to both the perception of team cohesion and team performance.

Similarly, the findings underscore the specific techniques leaders might employ to enhance team cohesion and team performance throughout the organization. By using a full range of effective relationship behaviors including coaching and facilitation, impression management, skill development, motivational communication, social support of team members, and the development of meaningful, shared social experiences, subordinates will get the task and social support necessary. While acknowledging that these conclusions are currently speculative, they do provide a starting point for leaders and aspiring leaders to consider when influencing the performance of teams is important.

Theoretical Contribution

Existing research on the impact of the nine-factor, full range of leadership model on organizational performance and team cohesion has not used third parties to assess perceptions of the leadership behaviors of head coaches of professional sports franchises as a generalizable proxy for leaders of action/performing teams. This group of raters has a unique role, which could provide an interesting perspective, and knowing how this third party perceives leadership and team cohesion is interesting, and might be useful information given their role as beatwriters and their level of access in these organizations.

Limitations

This research examines the relationship of perceived leadership styles to organizational performance, perceived leadership styles to perceived team cohesion, and perceived team cohesion to team performance, and the final development of a unique survey design to gather pertinent data is not without limitations. This study decided to use the holistic, nine-factor model of the Full Range of Leadership theory to measure third

party perceptions of the leadership behaviors of head coaches. We've specified the relationships between variables rather than an analysis of causal effects or influences due to the collection of cross-sectional data. Further, the design of this study obtained the insights of those responsible for observing and reporting on the organizations entrusted to these head coaches, namely beatwriters. With the use of this survey design come possible limitations.

One limitation of this study is the size of the sample used to test the hypotheses. The population initially receiving the MLQ-5X survey was a total of 323 sportswriters, which included those beatwriters assigned to cover each team within all four professional sports. Responses were received on 90 sports team leaders. The aggregate response rate for the sports leagues was 28%. The low response rate and correspondingly small final sample size contributed to low power in the relationships between several variables. According to Hair, et al. (2010, p. 174), a sample size of 90, with 10 independent variables, a significance level of .05, and a power of .80, will detect R^2 values of 12-15% and above. Also, Hair, et al. (2010, p. 175) note that sample size affects a researcher's ability to generalize the study results as well as assessing statistical power. The ratio of observations for each independent variable should not fall below a level of 5:1. This current study included ninety observations with ten independent variables. This choice brought the ratio to a 9:1 level in this study. Thus, the results are considered to be generalizable using this criterion.

A second limitation concerns the benefit of gathering additional information to further establish the credibility of the survey respondents. There were a total of 60 questions asked in this study, including the MLQ 5X items and demographic questions.

The survey asked which roles respondents currently held, their tenure as a sportswriter, gender, age and whether or not the respondent is a former athlete. Those receiving the survey weren't specifically asked about their interaction with the teams and coaches, how they were chosen for their beatwriting assignment, or how often they observed the leaders and teams they were assigned to. This study sought to reach a balance between the number of leadership, cohesion and demographic survey items, and asking the proper questions to a novel group of respondents. It is acknowledged here that substituting the identified items would have strengthened the credibility of these respondents.

Another limitation is the possibility that beatwriters assumed the level of team cohesion, and that they assumed certain leaders had certain behaviors given that their teams had good performance. Interviews conducted during the pilot study indicated otherwise, but it must be acknowledged that the pilot study was a total of six respondents. Similarly, another possible limitation is that beatwriters may not know about the team cohesion or leadership behaviors given we didn't ask about their interactions with the team or the leader. Though an acknowledged limitation, we saw this as less of a concern, because beatwriters were presented with an additional option to choose "don't know" as a response to the questions asked for this essay. This additional response option was added due to feedback received during the pilot study.

Finally, a limitation of doing research concerns a combination of rater apathy and apprehension. As previously mentioned, the approach of surveying beatwriters for their insights on the leadership styles of head coaches is a novel idea. This reality coupled with the understanding that this subset of sportswriters is not familiar with the researcher, many chose not to respond to participation requests. Additionally, the researcher was

unsuccessful in attempts to engage the professional sportswriters associations and secure an endorsement to encourage participation in this study. Securing support from these groups could have led to the perception of greater credibility for both the researcher and the overall study, and perhaps, to higher participation rates due to a lack of concern for a writer's name or identifiable comments being used in a published format. In the pilot study, offers of gift cards and donations to a beatwriter's favorite charity were used to induce greater participation, but because the feedback received indicated a negative effect, these offers were not repeated in the main study. Overall, this limitation serves to acknowledge that such apathy may have affected response rates as well as response accuracy.

Future Research

Future research should continue to examine the behaviors exhibiting leadership styles in the context of teams. One possible avenue for additional validation of the leadership styles of organizational leaders and CEOs could include utilizing a computer-aided text analysis of comments made during leader press conferences (Awamleh and Gardner, 1999; Berson, Shaamir, Avolio and Popper et al., 2001; Kirkpatrick, et al., 2002) or in annual reports. This method could build upon the current study by analyzing both the construction and delivery of a leader's visionary statements, and this step also answers Gardner et al.'s (2010) call to expand survey measures to utilize more direct measures of leadership which can include content analyses of leader speeches. In addition to the rater responses from beatwriters in this current study, computer-aided text analysis can deliver objective data to provide a more comprehensive view of the leadership styles for this sample group.

An additional path for future research could continue to explore the relationship between team cohesion and organizational performance. For example, do teams perform better when greater chemistry is cultivated, or will teams become more cohesive because they are, in fact, winning? Prior research suggests a mixed response both to this question, and the causal relationship between cohesion and organizational performance, depending upon the study's context. For this reason, empirical studies are needed to further determine which conditions attenuate or accentuate this relationship.

Another avenue for further research could focus on obtaining survey responses from either head coaches (managers) or players. Although this idea was contemplated at the onset of this research, the committee concluded participation rates would be very low in the absence of league, organization and player association support, combined with the timeline completion constraints associated with this study. By socializing the results of this study and building a relationship with these three entities, it is plausible to assume they would be amenable to providing the support necessary to convince players and coaches to either take the time to respond to future research requests, or provide access to meetings where research rationale could be explained and responses to self-report surveys could be gathered.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to test the Full Range of Leadership Model in a multi-organizational field setting to determine its ability to predict the objective team performance outcomes that are important to actual organizations. Additionally, this research is the first to field-test the relational link between perceived leadership styles and perceived team cohesion, and between perceived team cohesion and team

performance in the context of action and performance teams. Action and performance teams were chosen because they usually operate autonomously, with true team outcomes, and because, being worker paced, their performance can be substantially influenced by the leader's behaviors.

This study found that third-party perceptions of transformational leadership behaviors are positively related to team performance in the organizational context of action and performance teams in professional sports. Further, a positive and strong relationship between perceived team cohesion and team performance was found. Unexpectedly, this study found the perception of a leader's use of active management by exception behaviors are related positively to perceived team cohesion and team performance in this context. Overall, this study may provide practical insight for managers for how best to achieve their highest priority outcomes for the organization. Further, introducing beatwriters as raters integral to the team process in the context of action / performance teams in sports, suggest interesting and potentially fruitful new contributors to the empirical circle of raters while maintaining the high standards of research rigor.

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APPENDIX A

Example of Questionnaire Items *

Construct	Measurement Items
Transformational Leader Behaviors	1. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate. (IS) 2. Talks about his most important values and beliefs. (IA) 3. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems. (IS) 4. Talks optimistically about the future. (IM) 5. Instills pride in team members' for being associated with him. (IA) 6. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished. (IM) 7. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose. (IB) 8. Spends time teaching and coaching. (IC)
Transactional Leader Behaviors	1. Provides team members' with assistance in exchange for their efforts. (CR) 2. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards. (MBE-A) 3. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets. (CR)
Non-Leadership Behaviors	1. Is absent when needed. (LF) 2. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise. (LF) 3. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action. (LF)
Cohesion	1. His teams enjoyed working together. 2. Members wished they were on a different team. (Rev.) 3. His teams worked well together. 4. Everyone contributed to team discussions. 5. His teams wasted a lot of time. (Rev.) 6. The members of this team trusted that their teammates would do their fair share of the work.

* *Adapted from Bass & Avolio (1990).*

APPENDIX B

Professional Teams in Each League

MLB	NBA	NHL	NFL
Atlanta Braves	**Atlanta Hawks**	**Anaheim Ducks**	Atlanta Falcons
Arizona Diamondbacks	**Boston Celtics**	Boston Bruins	**Arizona Cardinals**
Baltimore Orioles	Charlotte Bobcats	Buffalo Sabres	**Baltimore Ravens**
Boston Red Sox	**Chicago Bulls**	Calgary Flames	Buffalo Bills
Chicago Cubs	**Cleveland Cavaliers**	**Carolina Hurricanes**	**Carolina Panthers**
Chicago White Sox	**Dallas Mavericks**	Chicago Blackhawks	Chicago Bears
Cincinnati Reds	Denver Nuggets	**Colorado Avalanche**	**Cincinnati Bengals**
Cleveland Indians	**Detroit Pistons**	Columbus Blue Jackets	**Cleveland Browns**
Colorado Rockies	**Golden State Warriors**	Dallas Stars	**Dallas Cowboys**
Detroit Tigers	Houston Rockets	**Detroit Red Wings**	**Denver Broncos**
Florida Marlins	Indiana Pacers	**Edmonton Oilers**	**Detroit Lions**
Houston Astros	**Los Angeles Clippers**	**Florida Panthers**	**Green Bay Packers**
Kansas City Royals	**Los Angeles Lakers**	**Los Angeles Kings**	**Houston Texans**
Los Angeles Dodgers	Memphis Grizzles	Minnesota Wild	**Indianapolis Colts**
Los Angeles Angels	Miami Heat	Montreal Canadiens	**Jacksonville Jaguars**
Milwaukee Brewers	**Milwaukee Bucks**	Nashville Predators	**Kansas City Chiefs**
Minnesota Twins	Minnesota Timberwolves	New Jersey Devils	**Miami Dolphins**
New York Mets	**New Jersey Nets**	New York Islanders	**Minnesota Vikings**
New York Yankees	New Orleans Hornets	**New York Rangers**	**New England Patriots**
Oakland Athletics	New York Knicks	Ottawa Senators	New Orleans Saints
Philadelphia Phillies	Oklahoma City Thunder	**Philadelphia Flyers**	New York Giants
Pittsburgh Pirates	**Orlando Magic**	Phoenix Coyotes	New York Jets
San Diego Padres	**Philadelphia 76ers**	Pittsburgh Penguins	**Oakland Raiders**
San Francisco Giants	**Phoenix Suns**	St. Louis Blues	**Philadelphia Eagles**
Seattle Mariners	**Portland Trailblazers**	San Jose Sharks	Pittsburgh Steelers
St. Louis Cardinals	**Sacramento Kings**	**Tampa Bay Lightning**	**San Diego Chargers**
Tampa Bay Rays	San Antonio Spurs	Toronto Maple Leafs	San Francisco 49ers
Texas Rangers	**Toronto Raptors**	**Vancouver Canucks**	**Seattle Seahawks**
Toronto Blue Jays	**Utah Jazz**	**Washington Capitals**	**St. Louis Rams**
Washington Nationals	**Washington Wizards**	Winnipeg Jets	Tampa Buccaneers
			Tennessee Titans
			Washington Redskins

*NOTE: **Bold** denotes teams with coaches or managers identified in study.*

APPENDIX C

Respondents and Responses per Professional Sport

Sports League	Respondents	Responses
Major League Baseball	17	17
National Basketball Association	21	26
National Football League	25	31
National Hockey League	11	16

APPENDIX D

Summary of Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypotheses	Results
Hypothesis 1a: Idealized influence (Attribute) is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.	Highly Significant; Supported
Hypothesis 2a: Idealized influence (Behavior) is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.	Highly Significant; Supported
Hypothesis 3a: Inspirational motivation is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.	Highly Significant; Supported
Hypothesis 4a: Intellectual stimulation is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.	Highly Significant; Supported
Hypothesis 5a: Individualized consideration is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.	Highly Significant; Supported
Hypothesis 1b: Idealized influence (Attribute) is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 2b: Idealized influence (Behavior) is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 3b: Inspirational motivation is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Not Supported; Opposite Direction
Hypothesis 4b: Intellectual stimulation is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Supported
Hypothesis 5b: Individualized consideration is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Supported
Hypothesis 6a: Contingent reward is positively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.	Highly Significant; Supported
Hypothesis 7a: Active management by exception is negatively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.	Not Supported; Opposite Direction
Hypothesis 8a: Passive management by exception is negatively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.	Highly Significant; Supported
Hypothesis 6b: Contingent reward is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 7b: Active management by exception is negatively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Not Supported; Opposite Direction
Hypothesis 8b: Passive management by exception is negatively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Not Supported

Hypothesis 9a: Laissez-faire is negatively related to team cohesion in the context of team sports.	Highly Significant; Supported
Hypothesis 9b: Laissez-faire is negatively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Supported
Hypothesis 10: Team cohesion is positively related to team performance in the context of team sports.	Significant; Supported

CHAPTER III

ESSAY 2: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP, TEAM PERFORMANCE AND THE MODERATING EFFECT OF TASK INTERDEPENDENCE

ABSTRACT

Is the locus of leadership in environments of high interdependence a significant predictor of team performance? Empirical evidence suggests that distributed leadership is related to team performance and team effectiveness. Researchers have also suggested that individual leadership helps to play a role in designing and supporting the transition to distributed leadership, and they call for empirical research to further explicate boundary conditions underlying these linkages. This study explores these boundary conditions by considering the relationship between distributed leadership and team performance at the team level of analysis, and it examines to what extent task interdependence moderates this relationship. The current essay builds upon the previous chapter, by providing an empirical examination of the conditions under which distributed leadership impacts team performance in the context of sports teams. Implications for organizations and future research are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The prevailing concepts of leadership involve the examination of influence an individual external leader has on his or her team or organization (Pierce and Newstrom, 2011). While this influence has been found to impact team cohesion and team

performance, research findings indicate this centralized leadership approach may not produce results in all situations (e.g., Hoch et al., 2010). With the increasing organizational use of teams in the workplace, this study attempts to understand if leadership emanating from a single individual will continue to produce team performance results given the interdependent nature of organizational teams, or if a decentralized approach to team leadership provides greater efficacy.

The concept of distributed leadership is at least fifty years old. In 1954, Gibb posited distributed leadership as a phenomenon worthy of consideration when he wrote:

> *Leadership is probably best conceived as a group quality, as a set of functions which must be carried out by the group. This concept of distributed leadership is an important one. If there are leadership functions which must be performed in any group, and if these functions may be focused or distributed, then leaders will be identifiable both in terms of the frequency and in terms of the multiplicity or pattern of functions performed (Gibb, 1954, p. 884).*

Distributed leadership consists of the interaction of leaders, subordinates and the situation they find themselves in, and it is considered decentralized because influence and decision-making is determined by the interplay between individuals rather than by individual control. Three approaches to distributed leadership are noteworthy. One perspective explains that distributed leadership refers to the emergent, fluctuating levels of individual team member influence, or mutual influence of, by, and on team members (Pearce, 2004). Another perspective extends the definition of distributed leadership to the "collective influence of the group on individual members" (e.g., Avolio et al., 2003, p. 149). A third approach defines distributed leadership as the level of leadership influence head coaches relinquish to others (Carson et. al., 2007).

Empirical leadership research has evolved from investigating leadership traits (Judge et al., 2002), to considering a behavioral perspective (House and Aditya, 1997;

Judge et al., 2004), to researching transformational leadership theory (e.g., Bass and Avolio, 1993), to examining leadership as a set of shared and distributed functions enacted by multiple leaders (e.g., DeChurch et al., 2010). Although the examination of leadership has been fruitful, Kozlowski and Bell (2003) argue that both vertical and distributed leadership should be studied together. Additionally, scholars suggest the use of a more holistic approach to capture elements of both forms of leadership and to ensure the broadest view possible (Day et al., 2004; Pearce and Sims, 2002).

This study contributes to the literature in multiple ways. First, this study will provide further clarity to the relationship between perceived distributed leadership and team performance outcomes by specifying interdependence as a moderator of the relationship. The specification of this relationship answers the following call by Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas, and Halpin, (2006), *"While no prior research has investigated the relative importance of distributed leadership under varying conditions of interdependence, increasing levels of task interdependence mandate increasingly tight couplings between members and thus imply the need for escalating levels of leadership* (p. 295)." Second, the study provides high internal validity of the findings by utilizing both primary and secondary data, attempting to avoid common method bias by surveying beatwriters to assess their perception of the leadership behaviors of head coaches, and using objective, quantitative measures to assess team performance. Third, the study simultaneously samples responses from specific members of the media responsible for covering team-related interactions in four major American sports leagues; Major League Baseball (MLB), the National Basketball Association (NBA), National Hockey League (NHL) and the National Football League (NFL) to analyze the moderating effects of task

interdependence upon the relationship between perceived distributed leadership and team performance. This design attempts to overcome the sample size limitations noted in previous studies (e.g., Barrick et al., 2007; Carson et al., 2007). Finally, this design is the first known study to elicit the opinion of sportswriters, specifically beatwriters, who are considered journalistic sports specialists (Izard, et al., 1994) and are recognized as experts in their industry.

The remainder of the paper is formatted in the following manner. The next section provides a summary of the most relevant literature addressing the concept of distributed leadership and its relationship with team performance in organizational firms. A conceptual model and hypotheses are developed in this section. The second section includes a discussion of methods to collect the sample data, operationalization of the variables, and the analyses employed. The final section discusses the results, implications of those findings, limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership has been defined as **"**an emergent team property that results from the distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members. It represents a condition of mutual influence embedded in the interactions among team members that can significantly improve team and organizational performance (Carson et al., 2007, p. 1,218)." Gibb (1954) originally posited the concept of two forms of leadership: focused and distributed. The former is a centralized approach embodied in a formally appointed individual whose roles and responsibilities require him or her to carry

the privilege of leadership, and is sometimes referred to as vertical leadership. The latter form of leadership occurs when these roles, responsibilities and functions are shared or distributed between two or more on the team. Further, small group researchers have argued that both forms of leadership should occupy opposite ends of the same continuum, rather than being conceptualized as independent (Gronn, 2002).

Hierarchical organizational structures have traditionally benefitted from support by a vertical leadership paradigm (Avolio et al., 2009). This simple leader-member relationship worked well in less complex environments. Flatter organizational structures faced with solving more complex issues choose to engage team-based structures, and the emergence of distributed leadership that began as self-directed teams are now becoming more established in industry (Manz and Sims, 1987). Pearce (2004) suggests that vertical leadership helps to play a role in designing and supporting the transition to shared leadership. Further, he suggests that when the environment calls for an organizational design that is best suited for working on complex tasks which require a great deal of creativity and high interdependence among members, distributed leadership is optimal.

Outcomes of Distributed Leadership

The findings on distributed leadership indicate positive and significant linkages with organizational outcomes (Carson et al., 2007; Ensley, Hmieleski, and Pearce, 2006; Pearce and Sims, 2002; Shamir and Lapidot, 2003). For example, Ensley et al. (2006) found distributed leadership to be a strong predictor of performance for new venture teams. Further, Pearce and Sims (2002) found distributed leadership to be a more useful predictor of team effectiveness than vertical leadership for change management teams. In

a study of consulting teams, Carson et al. (2007) found distributed leadership to be an effective predictor of team performance, whether or not the team had a designated formal leader. Finally, in a longitudinal qualitative analysis of military teams, Shamir and Lapidot (2003) suggest distributed leadership is related to team effectiveness. Most of the studies of distributed leadership have examined some dimension of performance (Heck and Hallinger, 2010; Hoch et al., 2010); however, several have examined other constructs, such as team dynamics (Pearce et al., 2004). For example, Heck and Hallinger (2010) found significant improvements in student learning as a result of testing a model of change in the relationship between distributed leadership, school improvement capacity and student performance in the context of education. Hoch et al., (2010) used a sample of German work teams and found support for prior research that a positive relationship exists between shared leadership and team performance in a non-US culture. In a 2004 study by Pearce et al., the authors suggest the positive effects of shared leadership on performance and other outcomes and processes, may result when tasks are highly interdependent, require a great deal of creativity and are highly complex in nature. Further, they suggest the presence of these three task characteristics trigger the need for shared leadership.

Empowering followers is a critical element of distributed leadership in the top management team (Houghton et al., 2003). Empowering leadership behaviors encourage the development of followers who can make independent decisions, think and act autonomously without direct supervision, and generally take responsibility for their own work behaviors (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Manz and Sims, 2001). Moreover, the empowering leadership process strives to create followers who are capable of teamwork

and effective shared leadership (Manz and Sims, 2001; Houghton et al., 2003). Empowering leadership entails modeling effective self-leadership behaviors and advocating the use of shared leadership within the team (Houghton et al., 2003). Empowering leadership focuses on viewing mistakes as learning opportunities (Manz and Sims, 1987; 2001), as well as having a primary emphasis on listening and asking questions rather than talking and providing answers. An empowering leader strives to replace conformity and dependence among followers with initiative, creativity, independence and interdependence (Houghton et al., 2003).

The critical element to this model is the notion that distributed leadership is created, developed and nurtured by empowering leadership from above. Several empirical studies by Pearce and colleagues have identified a positive relationship between empowering leadership from above and the development of shared leadership in teams, including top management teams (e.g., Ensley et al., 2006; Pearce, 1997; Pearce and Sims, 2002; Pearce et al., 2004; Pearce et al., 2008). Additionally, Katzenbach and Smith (1993) suggested that shared leadership has positive effects on team performance. Just as teams are brought together to handle complex, dynamic and non-recurring problems, the leadership required to address these problems must also demonstrate these same characteristics and competencies. This suggests the following hypothesis:

> *H1: The perceived level of distributed leadership in a team is positively related to team performance.*

Moderators

A common argument for distributed leadership is that the increasing complexity in the world will put greater demands on leaders. These demands may be easier to meet for two or more co-leaders than it is for a single leader. An additional supporting argument for this form of leadership is that as knowledge organizations become more common, the need for distributed leadership increases. The presence of flow, and the notion that those with greater proximity to the work tend to know it more intimately than those managing the work are characteristics of the knowledge organization that make it especially well-suited for this arrangement. Correspondingly, findings suggest that the importance of shared leadership increases as team tasks increase in complexity, perhaps because the level of interaction between members of the team increases (Cox et al., 2003; Kerr and Jermier, 1978). These arguments and findings suggest that the strength of the relationship of distributed leadership to team performance may intensify or weaken depending on contextual factors. This study suggests that one of these situations is when team members are highly interdependent.

Task Interdependence

Task interdependence is defined as the degree to which completing tasks requires the interaction of team members (Shea and Guzzo, 1987; Stewart and Barrick, 2000), and is argued to be a defining characteristic of teams (Burke, et al., 2006). When the level of interdependence is high, team members work in a collective fashion to complete tasks. Conversely, when the level of interdependence is low, team members act in a more independent manner. Barrick et al., (2007) stress the importance of interdependence to

the study of teams. Past research has examined the moderating effects of task interdependence and found this contingency variable to either amplify, attenuate or show no effect on the relationship between other variables at the team level of analysis (Burke et al., 2006; Duffy et al., 2000; Horwitz and Horwitz, 2007; Stewart and Barrick, 2000). Burke et al. (2006) reached a similar finding and noted that although small effect sizes prevented a full moderation analysis of data in the low interdependence category, results suggest the importance of leadership in teams is significant when task interdependencies are higher. Duffy et al. (2000) found high task interdependence intensified the relationship between relationship conflict and absenteeism for a sample of college graduate students. Further, a meta-analysis by Gully et al. (2002) found the relationship between team efficacy and team performance was stronger when interdependence was high, as compared to lower levels. Accordingly, Barrick et al. (2007) sampled the credit union industry and contributed two findings to the literature: 1) top management teams operating in a high interdependence context had higher team and firm performance when the team was more cohesive and had more communication; and 2) teams with low interdependence had higher performance when communication and cohesion were lower. These findings further substantiate the notion that greater levels of task complexity mandate the need for higher levels of interdependence to garner greater levels of performance.

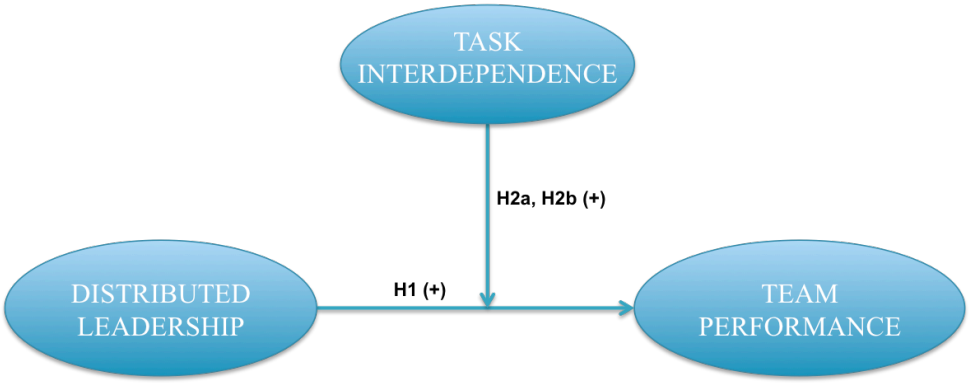
In the context of project management, research findings indicate the importance of leadership increases proportionate to the level of interdependence (Turner and Mueller, 2006). This suggests that distributed leadership styles are appropriate for teams that are more interdependent in contrast to the effectiveness of the “command and control style”

in a manufacturing environment and other less complex job contexts. Put another way, as the level of complexity rises for the leader, the most effective leadership style employed is perhaps more inclusive, participative and distributed.

Interdependence has been found to strengthen relations between team performance and team cohesion (Gully et al., 1995), collective efficacy (Gully et al., 2002), and team behavioral process (LePine et al., 2008). Synergistic emergent states and processes become more pivotal to team functioning when team members are mutually reliant upon one another (LePine et al., 2008, p. 36). Thus, it is suggested that task interdependence moderates the relationship between distributed leadership and team performance such that the relationship will be stronger for teams working on highly interdependent tasks than teams working on either low or medium interdependent tasks. This relationship is shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

Conceptual Model



Four distinct levels of workflow form a continuum of increasing interconnectivity and dependence between group members (Thompson, 1967). Pooled workflow demonstrates the lowest level of the continuum, as the work and activities performed by all group members are done in isolation, and work does not flow between members of the group. The aggregated product from all individual contributors forms the total output. Sequential workflow describes the next level of dependence along the continuum and embodies tasks that flow in a unidirectional manner, from one individual in a group to another. Group performance is not simply summing or pooling the outcomes of a team member's performance as in pooled workflow, but it details the progression of the work through the group as well (Beal et al., 2003). Pooled and sequential workflow can be considered a low level of task interdependence.

On the other end of the continuum is reciprocal work that flows in a bidirectional manner from one team member to another. Members perform different parts of a task in a flexible order. Handoffs between team members can occur several times in this task type and team performance is considered completed when the last person has completed his or her assignment (Campion et al., 1993). Finally, the term *team interdependence* made its first appearance in the literature in 1976 (Van de Ven, Delbecq, and Koenig, 1976), and represents the highest form of interdependence along the continuum. In interdependent team environments, group members jointly diagnose, problem solve and collaborate in order to complete a task (Saavedra, Earley, and Van Dyne, 1993). Further, group members have the autonomy to design their own jobs.

Professional baseball, football, basketball and hockey have been used to illustrate distinct organizational models along a variety of dimensions, including interdependence,

coordination, and the role of management (Keidel, 1984, 1987). Of the four sports, baseball has the lowest level of interdependence among players. When interaction does occur, it usually involves only two or three of the nine players on the field. The players bat individually and, with a few exceptions (for example, pitcher and catcher) take responsibility for perfecting their skills individually. If each player is successful as an individual, the team should win. Thus, baseball exemplifies pooled interdependence (Keidel, 1984, 1987).

In football, with its higher interdependence, all players have a role in executing the game plan; however, only some of the players directly coordinate their actions, for example, the blockers for the offensive team leading a running back on a power sweep play. This is an example where work and activities flow from one member to another in the team but mostly in a unidirectional manner. In this instance, work flows from some individuals to others and football is considered to be an exemplar of sequential interdependence (Campion et al., 1993).

Interdependence and coordination are highest in basketball and hockey and both sports exemplify reciprocal interdependence. Work and activities flow back and forth between individuals (Campion et al., 1993), but only a single team member is worked with at a given moment in time. Reciprocal interdependence is a metaphor for cooperation (Keidel, 1987). The players continually interact on offense, working to get a teammate open and to advance the object of concern (e.g., ball, puck) to him or her. Examples of coordination on defense include players double-teaming an offensive player and ensuring the open position is covered when a defensive player makes an unsuccessful attempt to intercept a pass. This is a setting in which experientially acquired tacit

knowledge of how other members of the team play, and where they are likely to be positioned in a particular situation at a particular time, is highly important. The cumulative experience shared with other team members is a critical variable here. The greater the time that team members spend working together, the more likely it is that they will develop the individual cognitive schemata required to understand and appreciate each others' capabilities and to synchronize their individual game play accordingly. Put differently, the basketball court is a setting in which the stock of tacit knowledge underpinning the collective mind of a team is likely to be of significant value (Berman et al., 2002, p. 18). In this highly interdependent situation, the coach uses a conscious strategy of relinquishing leadership to competent influencers with relevant skills in an effort to help ensure a stronger team performance. This supports the following hypotheses:

> *H2a: The positive relationship between perceived distributed leadership and team performance is stronger for basketball and hockey teams than for football or baseball teams.*
>
> *H2b: The relationship between perceived distributed leadership and team performance is positive and statistically significant for basketball, hockey, and football teams, but not for baseball teams.*

METHODS

The research methodology used in this study involves surveying a specialized group of sportswriters from four professional leagues with North American franchises: the MLB, NBA, NFL and the NHL. This method follows previous research (e.g., Lindsley et al., 1995) and suggests that sportswriters may have access to the collective mind of the group. These sportswriters are commonly referred to as “beatwriters,”

meaning they are assigned to a specific team or "beat" throughout a season to include the off-season, or over many seasons. This provides beatwriters with a longitudinal view, as they are responsible for observing team interactions, and disseminating information through either print or electronic news media outlets – including social media. In addition to game day coverage, beatwriters are responsible for documenting what happens before and after each game to include team news, player transactions, injury reports and coaching changes. They write feature stories on players and coaches, and provide insight on trends involving the team or sport they cover to help the interested public understand everything relevant to the team. This group of respondents was chosen as participants in this study for two primary reasons. First, their job is to ensure daily, objective media coverage of their assigned sports team. Second, because beatwriters go into the pre and post game locker room, practices and training room, they occupy an ideal and unique position from which to observe the behavioral and relational style demonstrated by the head coach or manager of their assigned team. This access provides the opportunity to directly hear comments and observe verbal and non-verbal cues of both coach and team. Given these realities, beatwriters are a valid representative group of subject matter experts to give an informed opinion on the observed leadership behaviors exhibited by head coaches for their respective teams.

Research at Kennesaw State University that involves human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (IRB, 2010). Prior to the start of data collection efforts, the Institutional Review Board approval request form and training certificate along with the consent documents and survey instruments for this

study were submitted to the board for review. Requisite approvals were received upon the initial review.

This study utilized survey items adapted from Carson et al, (2007) to measure social network theory operationalized through the lens of distributed leadership in the context of action and performing teams. The survey questionnaire contains three scales developed to measure the extent to which the head coach shares or distributes his leadership with either the team players or the coaching staff. The scales include shared purpose, social support and voice.

The hypotheses were tested using both subjective and objective data. Subjective data is provided by sports beatwriters who are assigned to each team with the responsibility to provide team insight to the public on a daily and weekly basis. They responded to an electronic questionnaire sent by email regarding their perceptions of leadership behavior. Objective measurement of team performance was measured using the win-loss records and winning percentages for coaches in the sports sample of interest. The objective data was derived from a variety of widely used public data sources, primarily http://www.pro-football-reference.com/, http://nbauniverse.com/, http://www.hockey-reference.com/ and http://www.baseball-reference.com/. Hierarchical regression was used to analyze the data.

Data Collection (Sample)

This study examined the current state of distributed leadership for all head coaches[iv] of Major League Baseball (MLB), the National Football League (NFL), National Basketball Association (NBA) and National Hockey League (NHL) for the 2000

– 2011 seasons. The timeframe was chosen to ensure the most recent data was obtained. To determine the proper sample size, Hair et al. (2010) suggest a minimum ratio of five observations for each independent variable, but recommend between 15 and 20 observations for each independent variable. For this sample, 334 sportswriter surveys were solicited. Eight responses resulted from the original email request. Additionally, one hundred-twelve responses were received by utilizing Twitter to contact sportswriters and obtain their functional email address. Complete or nearly complete surveys were returned by 90 beatwriters for an overall 27% response rate.

Several reasons underlay choosing sports as the setting for this study, and for choosing these specific sports within that setting. First, sports are an underutilized source of data for the purpose of studying managerial and leadership research, although a number of parallels exist between leaders in both sports and business. Organizational leaders and professional sports coaches face similar occupational challenges. For instance, both tend to be involved in the selection of their subordinates' roles, continued development and performance appraisals, as well as the implementation of the unit's strategy. In addition, they face similar obstacles to success such as challenging goals with rapidly approaching deadlines that require precise coordination of their subordinates' efforts. Based on such similarities, Cannella and Rowe (1995) noted the insights gained by researching sports teams are relevant and therefore generalizable to other organizational contexts. This suggests that the use of sports as the setting for this study coupled with the use of professional sports coaches will provide a reasonable proxy for examining the proposed hypotheses.

The specific sports were chosen because of their differing levels of task interdependence. Major League Baseball is comprised of 30 teams with 25 players on each team. Only nine team members actively participate in the competition between teams at any one time, though other team members may substitute into play during the course of the game. Beginning with the visiting team, each team will take a turn at bat at least nine times during a game. These rotations are called innings and there are a total of nine, untimed innings within each game – unless extra innings are necessary to decide the outcome of the game. Within an inning, each team has the opportunity to attempt to score runs (i.e., accumulate points for the team by having a player touch all four bases) and to prevent the other team from scoring runs. The team that has scored more runs at the end of the nine innings is the winner. Each team competes in 162 games during the regular season, and half of those games are played in the other team's home ballpark. The majority of interaction in baseball is between two players at any one time. This leads to the conclusion that baseball personifies low levels of task interdependence (Keidel, 1987; Werner and Mero, 1999), and exemplifies pooled interdependence.

The National Football League has 32 teams with 53 players on each team's roster. During the game, 11 members of the team play on either offense or defense, and other team members are frequently rotated in to help rest other players as the game progresses. There are four timed quarters in each game. Within each quarter, each team has the opportunity to score points on either offense or defense, and to prevent the other team from scoring points. The team with the most points at the end of elapsed time wins the game. Each team will play 16 regular season games, with half of those played at the team's home field and the other half on the home field of their weekly opponent. Football

exemplifies sequential interdependence due to the dependent nature of interaction between players (Keidel, 1987).

The National Basketball Association and National Hockey League have 30 teams each, and a roster size of 15 and 23 players respectively. Five members of NBA teams play at any one time, and six players (five skaters and one goalie) for each NHL team are on the hockey ice at once. As in other sports, team members are substituted in during the game to provide rest or to provide either strategic or tactical advantage. The object of both games is to get the basketball into the hoop, or hard rubber hockey puck into the net. An NBA game has four timed quarters and NHL teams play three 20-minute periods. The NBA and NHL regular season duration is a total of 82 games, with half of those games played in the teams' home arenas. Within these two sports, the majority of interaction occurs between all players, with the exception of the goalie position in the NHL. Small group researchers note that basketball and hockey exemplify reciprocal interdependence because of the frequent interaction between players needed to achieve the desired results in each of these sports (Keidel, 1987). Both the hockey puck and the basketball are passed back and forth between players in the course of a basketball game and hockey.

In addition to differing levels of task interdependence, sports teams have objective and easily interpretable performance measures (Pfeffer and Davis-Blake, 1986; Wolfe et al., 2005), which serve to remove the doubt associated with subjective measurements of team performance. Further, because sports have public and wide appeal, a considerable amount of objective data (e.g., win-loss records, payroll information, coach history, etc.) measured accurately and precisely, is available on the constructs of interest (Goff and Tollison, 1990).

Furthermore, Keidel (1987) has suggested that the lessons learned about sports teams transfer to organizational teams, i.e., the interdependence within baseball teams and their attendant coordination demands have distinct implications for the study of teams in general. In fact, other organizational scholars have successfully studied organizational phenomena in the context of sports teams (e.g., Hofmann, Jacobs, and Gerras, 1992; Staw and Hoang, 1995, Werner and Mero, 1999; Humphrey et al., 2009). According to Sundstrom et al.'s (1999) team type typology, sports teams are considered action and performing teams, characterized by high differentiation (i.e., high specialization and exclusive membership in the team) and brief performance episodes that are repeated frequently. Such teams are mirrored in organizational settings (Humphrey et al., 2009) and may provide for generalizability to other organizational contexts.

MEASURES

All measures were either taken from objective archival data or adapted from previous studies and applied to the professional sports context. Further, the survey was pilot tested on a small sample (n=6) of professional sportswriters to test for survey clarity, face validity, and comprehensiveness. Minor changes were made to the survey based on comments from the pilot test. For example, one sportswriter noted that he did not believe he had a close enough relationship with the coach to be able to accurately answer some of the leadership style questions. Thus, "don't know" was added as a response choice for each question in the survey.

Team Performance (Dependent Variable)

Team Performance is the dependent variable. The winning percentage during the head coach's tenure was used to operationalize this construct. This is similar to the objective measure used in a previous study of succession (Pfeffer and Blake, 1986). This objective outcome measure was utilized for three main reasons. First, winning percentage, in this context, allows organizational performance to be observable and reliably measured (Bloom, 1999). Second, the win-loss records of sports teams are vigorously maintained by sports league statisticians and readily accessible on official league sites. Finally, the winning percentage is applicable to all team sports, and thus could be used across the study's four-sport sample.

Statistics for the four major professional sports in the United States are maintained for the preseason, regular season and postseason of each year. For example, because basketball teams play 82 games during the regular season, there are 82 dichotomous evaluations of performance. Aggregating these 82 performance evaluations into one global measure creates a highly reliable performance metric (Humphrey et al., 2009). Likewise, the head coach or manager of these teams accumulates and maintains a win-loss record and corresponding winning percentage. These records provide an objective view of the coach's performance during his tenure with each team, as well as his overall winning percentage during his coaching tenure in the league with other teams. In sum, sports teams and head coaches have a clear measurement of success: their winning percentage record.

Distributed Leadership (Independent Variable)

Distributed Leadership is defined as the level of leadership head coaches relinquish to others, and it is measured based on the previous work of Carson, et al. (2007). The modified questionnaire used for this study contains three separate, theoretically derived subscales designed to assess the *shared purpose*, *social support* and *voice* distributed between the head coach, the players on the team, and the coaching staff. The shared purpose and social support scales were modified to specifically fit the context of the sample. The former scale was further subdivided to measure the level of shared purpose between the head coach and team players, and between the head coach and his coaching staff. *Voice* (Carson, et al, 2007) is measured using four items, which appear in Appendix B.

Based upon interviews of respondents in the pilot test, sportswriters were provided with a "don't know" option in the survey. This additional option was used at least occasionally by 24 of the respondents, but the resulting data from this choice was not included in the final analysis because it was treated as missing data. Thus, respondents who did not have enough information to accurately assess certain aspects of the distributed leadership style of the head coaches occasionally chose the "don't know" option in the survey, leading to some missing data in the measure of that variable. To overcome this challenge, the mean of the distributed leadership responses was used, including only the data points that were reported. The mean of the distributed leadership responses was labeled as DL Mean.

Because the number of items used to calculate DL Mean varied by respondent, a definitive measure of reliability could not be calculated because the alpha will vary by

respondent based on the number of items used to calculate DL Mean. The number of items used to calculate DL mean ranged from 2 to 13. One item, *the head coach and coaching staff devise action plans and time schedules that allow for meeting their team goals,* displayed no variance and was removed from the scale during reliability analysis. The reliability of the measure for respondents that had the fewest and greatest number of items comprising their DL Mean score was used to estimate the average reliability. Assuming that the quality of the items is consistent, alpha will be lowest for those calculated with only two items and highest for those calculated with 12 items. The alpha for the 1 respondent who only answered two of the items is 0.86. The alpha for the 5 respondents who answered all 12 items used to calculate DL was 0.95. Because the average respondent answered 7.5 out of the possible 13 items in the survey, the best estimate of the average alpha for this measure is 0.91. Thus, although the reliability of this measure varies by subject, because all the reliabilities exceed the generally accepted cut-off of an adequate scale (Hair et al., 2010), it is believed this measure demonstrates acceptable reliability.

Task Interdependence (Moderating Variable)

Task interdependence is the moderating variable in this study. Task interdependence was measured objectively by the context or sport being assessed. Basketball and hockey exemplify reciprocal interdependence (Campion et al., 1993; Keidel, 1987) and are coded with a 1, football is coded with a 2, and it exemplifies sequential interdependence (Campion et al., 1993), while baseball exemplifies pooled

interdependence (Keidel, 1984, 1987), and is coded with a 3. Separate analysis was conducted for each sport to test Hypothesis 2a and 2b.

Control Variables

Coach Age – Age has been found to have an effect on the risk orientation of a coach, thereby influencing his or her approach to strategic decisions (Wiersema and Bantel, 1992). This variable is operationalized as the coach's age during the year of team performance, and was collected from official team sites, particularly www.nfl.com, www.mlb.com, www.nhl.com, and www.nba.com.

Coaching history – defined as total years coaching at the college and professional levels. The dimensions of coaching history are years as both head coach, assistant coach, manager or position coach.

Education level – Organizations whose CEOs had above-average levels of education were found to help their respective companies achieve significant changes in diversification strategy (Wiersema and Bantel, 1992). This suggests that manager educational level may be positively related to team performance. Educational level was operationalized as the total years of education per coach, and was collected from coach profiles and biographies.

Family ownership – Many sports franchises are family owned and past research has found the combination of family involvement and interactions may provide those firms a competitive advantage (Habbershon et al., 2003). Family firm status is the control variable used in this study to classify firms as either family or non-family owned. This study defines family ownership as voting control by three or fewer family members.

Consistent with the approach of Barnett et al. (2009), family firms were coded as 1, and non-family firms are coded as 0.

Team payroll – Amount of team payroll was chosen as a control variable because firms with a higher payroll are assumed able to afford and to have higher quality players. Thus, team payroll is a proxy measure for the quality of the team members. Team payroll was measured using the total stated amount in the almanacs of each sport standardized by sport.

Analytical Method

Hierarchical Ordinary Least Squares regression was chosen to examine the relationship between distributed leadership and the measurement of team performance for the total sample, and by sport. First, the relationship between distributed leadership and team performance (H1) was examined. The moderation relationship of distributed leadership and team performance by level of interdependence was then examined. That is, to test hypotheses 2a and 2b, the regression model was run separately by each level of interdependence and the betas of the three different levels of interdependence were analyzed.

RESULTS

The descriptive statistics and correlations among all the variables are reported in Tables 1 and 2. Means and standard deviations are reported in Table 1. The average age of the coaches in this sample is 50.46 (*SD* = 7.7). The average coaching history for this sample is 6.50 years (*SD* = 6.37) and 84% of the teams are identified as

family owned. The average education of all coaches is 15.4 years (SD = 1.9). The average payroll of these teams is $75,534.50 million (USD). The coaches won an average of 51 percent of their regular season games (SD = 11.3).

TABLE 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Variables of Interest

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Performance	51.47	11.29	20.83	75.89
Coach Age	50.46	7.70	33	74
Coach History	6.50	6.36	1	30
Family Ownership	.84	.36	-	-
Coach Education	15.42	1.90	12	18
Payroll [a]	$75.50	$27.00	$14.99	$1,311.90
Distributed Leadership	30.53	.58	1	6

[a] USD millions.

The alphas for the variables of interest are noted in the diagonals of Table 2. Table 2 shows that Coach History is significantly related to Performance, Coach Age, and Payroll. Payroll is also significantly related to Family Ownership and Coach Education. Distributed leadership is only significantly bivariately related to Coach History among the control variables, and is also significantly ($p<.05$; 1-tailed test) related to performance as hypothesized in H1. Because among the control variables only Coach History was significantly related to distributed leadership bivariately, we retained it as the

only control variable in the OLS regression to save on degrees of freedom given the small sample size. Hypothesis 1 was formally tested using a model including the control variables as reported in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Correlations Among the Variables of Interest

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Performance	-						
2. Coach Age	.13	-					
3. Coach History	.23*	.43**	-				
4. Family Ownership	.11	-.12	.05	-			
5. Coach Education	-.10	-.16	.02	.16	-		
6. Payroll[c]	.06	.01	.22*	.32**	.27**	-	
7. Dist. Leadership	.17*	.07	.15	-.15	-.07	-.11	*.91*

[a] Standardized betas are reported; alpha in diagonal; N = 77 – 90.
[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.
** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.
[c] USD millions.

Table 3 reports the regression results for the relationship between the variable of interest and the dependent variable of team performance. Distributed leadership is defined as the level of leadership influence head coaches relinquish to others (Carson et. al., 2007). Correspondingly, positive values of the coefficients imply a positive relationship between the variable of interest and team performance. Model 1 of Table 3 reports the baseline model containing all control variables. Model 2 adds the main effects of the distributed leadership variable. Hypothesis 1 predicts distributed leadership is

positively related to team performance. In line with this prediction, in model 2 of Table 3, the main effect for distributed leadership is positive and significant ($\beta = 0.15$, $p < .05$), thus Hypothesis 1 is supported.

TABLE 3

Regression Results for Performance

Variables [b]	Model 1[a] N=90		Model 2 N=90	
Coach Age	0.03		0.07	
Coach History	0.22	**	0.18	*
Family Ownership	0.12		0.16	
Coach Education	-0.12		-0.15	
Payroll	-0.00		0.12	
Sports Dummy (SD)			0.17	
DL Mean			0.15	*
R^2	0.08		0.12	*
Adj. R^2	0.03		0.04	*
$\Delta R^2_{variable}$	0.08		0.04	*

Note:
[a] Standardized betas are reported.
[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.
** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 2a predicts the positive relationship between distributed leadership and team performance is stronger for basketball and hockey teams than for football and baseball teams. Hypothesis 2b predicts that the relationship between distributed leadership and team performance is positive and statistically significant for basketball, hockey, and football teams but not for baseball teams. To test these two hypotheses, the

total sample of responses was separated into subsamples, grouped by level of interdependence, and then each was individually analyzed. Because these subsamples are considerably smaller than the total sample, including all the control variables used earlier would violate the rule of thumb of a minimum sample size of five times the number of independent variables (Hair et al, 2010). Thus, the only significant predictor of the previous models reported in Table 3, coach history, was included in these models. The results are displayed in Table 4. Instead of including all control variables, this approach utilizes coach history in the first model, and then adds the means of distributed leadership to determine the variance above and beyond the control variable for each level of interdependence. Reciprocal interdependence (basketball and hockey) were grouped together and analyzed first, as they are the most interdependent of the four sports. There were a total of 41 responses between these two sports. This procedure was repeated for sequential interdependence (football with 29 responses) and pooled interdependence (baseball with 20 responses).

There are a total of 6 models in Table 4, with each type of interdependence using two models. Model 1 shows the effect of coach history for basketball and hockey, and Model 2 shows the significance of the addition of DL Mean. Model 3 shows the effect of coach history for football, and Model 4 demonstrates the added effect of DL Mean for football. Model 5 displays the effect of coach history in the sport of baseball, and Model 6 shows the added effect of DL Mean in the sport of baseball. Contrary to the prediction of Hypothesis 2a, the beta of the addition of DL Mean for basketball and hockey (β = -0.01) is less than that of football (β = 0.30, p<.10) or baseball (β = 0.12, p< n.s.). Hence, hypothesis 2a is not supported. However, the effect of DL Mean of football is a

medium effect (β = 0.30) and marginally significant (p<.10) while the effect in baseball is small and not significant. Thus, hypothesis 2b is partially supported. Although, the partial support is only marginal, this may be due to the very small sample size in football (n=29), because the effect size of the Beta (β = 0.30) is considerable.

TABLE 4

Regression Results by Interdependence

	Reciprocal Interdependence (Basketball & Hockey)		Sequential Interdependence (Football)		Pooled Interdependence (Baseball)	
Variables [b]	Model 1[a] N=41	Model 2 N=41	Model 3 N=29	Model 4 N=29	Model 5 N=20	Model 6 N=20
Coach History	0.16	0.16	0.32	0.26	0.35	0.34
DL Mean		-0.01		0.30 †		0.12
R^2	0.03	0.03	0.10	0.19	0.13	0.14
Adj. R2	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.13	0.08	0.04
ΔR2variable	0.03	0.00	0.10	0.09 †	0.13	0.01

[a] Standardized betas are reported.
[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.
** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. † $p < .10$.

DISCUSSION

Small groups research has fruitfully examined vertical or centralized leadership (i.e., Bass and Avolio, 1993; House and Aditya, 1997; Judge et al., 2002), and scholars have called for a horizontal or decentralized approach to ensure the broadest leadership view possible (Day, et al., 2004; Pearce and Sims, 2002). This study used survey data collected from beatwriters assigned to teams in four professional sports leagues in North America. This information was augmented with the subsequent objective organizational performance data for the head coaches and managers of those teams. The research results provide support for the prediction that head coaches and managers who share their leadership control with both team players and assistant coaches will outperform those who do not. Further, marginal support was found for a positive and statistically significant relationship between distributed leadership and team performance in the interdependence context of sequential, but not pooled action teams.

One interesting finding of this study came in analyzing the effects of the perceptions of distributed leadership on team performance across the continuum of interdependence. The original hypothesis predicting a stronger positive relationship between distributed leadership and team performance for the reciprocally interdependent sports of basketball and hockey than for the sequential and pooled interdependent sports of football and baseball, respectively, was not supported. The argument supporting this prediction was based on previous research suggesting the positive effects of shared leadership may result when tasks are highly interdependent, require a great deal of creativity and are highly complex in nature (i.e., Pearce, Yoo, and Alavi, 2004). This was applied to the sports context based on research findings showing the relationship of

various sports to the continuum of interdependence (Keidel, 1984, 1987; Campion et al., 1993).

One possible reason for these unexpected results may lie in the leaders' access to specialized assistant coaches in the sports of football and baseball in contrast to basketball and hockey. In the former sports, the head coach or manager acts like the CEO of the firm, and shares leadership with the assistant and position coaches. For example, in the NFL, there are three subteams, namely offense, defense and special teams. Each of these subteams is coached by an assistant, along with a number of other assistant coaches in the coaching booth. Similarly, Major League Baseball managers employ a number of coaches with specialties to complement the manager's expertise (i.e., hitting coaches, pitching coaches, etc.). One questionnaire item for this variable asked beatwriters to rate a chosen head coach on his level of effectiveness in "spending time discussing their team's purpose, goals and expectations for their projects" with his team players, while a similar item asks the same question regarding the head coach's interaction with the coaching staff. In contrast, the NBA and NHL have fewer assistant coaches, so although all leaders were rated for their degree of leadership dispersion regarding the entire team, it may be reasonable, albeit speculative, to assume survey respondents would rate the leaders in these sports as more decentralized in their leadership approach than those with fewer assistant position coaches.

The concept of distributed leadership is not a novel idea (Gibb, 1954), and this research is consistent with past studies in the small groups literature showing a positive relationship between distributed leadership and organizational performance in small groups and teams in a variety of contexts (e.g., Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson, 2003;

Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, and Walumbwa, 2009; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson, 2008). This study is differentiated from past research first by its definition of distributed leadership being the level of leadership head coaches relinquish to others (Carson et al., 2007), next by assessing the perception of an individual leader's proclivity to share their leadership control with both team players and assistant coaches in the context of professional sports teams, and finally by utilizing beatwriters as survey respondents. Further, the researchers elicited survey participation through the social media platform Twitter, demonstrating its utility for increasing response rates in this context.

Managerial Implications

The findings from this study have managerial implications for leadership practices at multiple levels of an organization. While leadership style has been found to impact team performance, the focus generally has been on a single leader, an approach that may not produce results in all situations (Hoch et al., 2010). With the increasing use of interdependent teams in the workplace, the findings of this study suggest that leaders who are perceived as having developed and implemented *shared purpose*, garnered *social support* and empowered *voice* among team members, will experience a greater relationship with performance than they would otherwise in organizational contexts requiring speed, creativity and the use of teams.

A stronger positive relationship was expected between the perception of distributed leadership behaviors and team performance for the reciprocally interdependent sports of basketball and hockey, than for the sequential and pooled

interdependent sports of football and baseball, respectively. This prediction was based upon previous research suggesting the positive effects of distributed leadership may result when tasks are highly interdependent, require a great deal of creativity and are highly complex in nature (i.e., Pearce, Yoo, and Alavi, 2004), in addition to findings mapping the relationship of various sports to the continuum of interdependence (Keidel, 1984, 1987; Campion et al., 1993). As mentioned earlier, a possible reason for this unexpected result could be the access to specialized assistant coaches in the sports of football and baseball in contrast to basketball and hockey. While acknowledging that these conclusions are currently speculative, they do provide a starting point for leaders and aspiring leaders to consider, when influencing the performance of teams is important.

Theoretical Contributions

This study makes a number of theoretical contributions. First, the results of this study suggest the relationship between the perception of distributed leadership behaviors and performance is positively correlated in the context of action and performance teams at the team level of analysis. Prior research focused on team leadership has analyzed self-reported leadership attributes that were subsequently aggregated to the team level (ex: Avolio, Jung, Murry, and Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

Next, this research tests theory of distributed leadership by surveying those responsible for observing and reporting on the variables of interest in a field study, rather than a lab format. This research design takes a unique approach by eliciting interested; yet unbiased experts, to respond to previously validated scales. By so doing, this design

attempts to strengthen the validity of results while overcoming the effects of self-reporting bias.

Third, this essay contributes to the distributed leadership literature by adding subdimensions that further measure the perception of a leaders' level of shared purpose. Doing so extends the use of this variable in a manner not used previously. Asking respondents to answer survey questions related to a head coach's willingness to share leadership with team players as well as with assistant coaches and coaching staff expanded the original three survey items to six. This allowed the respondents an opportunity to recall a leader's observed interactions at the "shop floor level" of the organization. Carson et al. (2007) examined shared leadership as an emergent state in a context of teammates supporting each other, sharing a common purpose and voice. Research centered on distributed leadership offers that for it to manifest, two antecedent conditions must be present. The first is the willingness of individual team members to offer their leadership in support of the group, and the second is that the team must be desirous of utilizing the leadership offered by their peers (Katz and Kahn, 1978). By focusing on the leaders' willingness and decision to distribute leadership among team members to include assistant coaches, the work of Carson, et al (2007) is extended beyond internal team members as we examine the internal team environment enabled by the leader.

The findings highlight a viable model (Carson et al., 2007) of behaviors in the context of distributed leadership. Survey respondents validated that the adapted items comprising shared purpose, social support and voice, measure the construct of perceived distributed leadership in the context of sports. These measurement items can serve to

provide organizations with detailed, measurable and actionable behaviors necessary to strengthen the social networks of teams and perhaps lead to greater business success. Indeed, Cannella and Rowe's (1995) statement that "Sports teams provide insights about leader abilities and experience levels that are quite relevant to other types of organizations," holds true in this study.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This research examines the relationship of perceived leadership styles to organizational performance, perceived leadership styles to perceived team cohesion, and perceived team cohesion to team performance, and the final development of a unique survey design to gather pertinent data is not without limitations. This study measured the third-party perceptions of distributed leadership behaviors of head coaches and managers. Further, it obtained insights from beatwriters whose job is to gather information through conversations and behavioral observations with and between players and coaches, and report through public channels about the organizations entrusted to these head coaches. With the decision to use this unique survey design come possible limitations.

One limitation of this study is the size of the sample used to test the hypotheses. The population initially receiving the MLQ-5X survey was a total of 323, which included those beatwriters assigned to cover each team within all four professional sports. Responses were received on 90 sports team leaders. The aggregate response rate for the sports leagues was 28%. The low response rate and correspondingly small final sample size contributed to low power in the relationships between several variables. According to Hair, et al. (2010, p. 174), a sample size of 90, with 10 independent variables, a

significance level of .05, and a power of .80, will detect R^2 values of 12-15% and above. Also, Hair, et al. (2010, p. 175) note that sample size affects a researcher's ability to generalize the study results as well as assessing statistical power. The ratio of observations for each independent variable should not fall below a level of 5:1. This current study included ninety observations with ten independent variables. This choice brought the ratio to a 9:1 level in this study. Thus, the results are considered to be generalizable using this criterion.

Another limitation concerns the benefit of gathering additional information to further establish the credibility of the survey respondents. There were a total of 60 questions asked in this study, including the MLQ 5X items and demographic questions. The survey asked which roles respondents currently held, their tenure as a sportswriter, gender, age and whether or not the respondent is a former athlete. Those receiving the survey weren't specifically asked about their interaction with the teams and coaches, how they were chosen for their beatwriting assignment, or how often they observed the leaders and teams they were assigned to. This study sought to reach a balance between the number of leadership, cohesion and demographic survey items, and asking the proper questions to a novel group of respondents. It is acknowledged here that substituting the identified items would have strengthened the credibility of these respondents.

The third limitation involves the overall length of the survey. The survey measuring distributed leadership covered in this essay requested responses to a total of 13 items; however, this question set was delivered in tandem with the survey for Essay one of this manuscript. This approach brought the number of questions to 60 for the

combined questionnaire. Thus, the length of the overall survey may have contributed to low response rates.

An additional limitation involves the large amount of missing data in this survey of distributed leadership. As previously mentioned, beatwriters were presented with an additional option to choose "don't know" as a response to the questions asked for this essay. This additional response option was added due to feedback received during the pilot study. When combined with previous limitations (i.e., lack of familiarity with research and researcher, no endorsement from sportswriters associations, uncertainty about the use of collected data), perhaps beatwriters chose this option because either they truly didn't know the answer, or they saw this response as more favorable than fabricating a knowingly incorrect reply in opposition to their journalistic integrity.

Finally, one may question the ability of beatwriters to accurately assess the leadership style of professional sports coaches. Although this is a concern, it is not believed to be serious because respondents were provided with a "don't know" option, which was at least occasionally used by 24 of the respondents. Thus, it appears that respondents who did not feel they had enough interaction and/or information to determine accurately the leaders style chose the "don't know" option, meaning those who did respond felt confidence in being able to do so. This view was supported by interviews of respondents in the pilot test.

Future research into distributed leadership could benefit by examining its subdimensions. The current study utilizes a model that measures a leader's level of shared purpose, social support and voice, further subdivided by willingness to share leadership with players as well as with assistant coaches and coaching staff. While these

subdimensions are aggregated in the current study, additional variance may be extracted by measuring the leader's level of influence on each of these subdimensions rather than in aggregate.

Another aspect with a possibility for future research could focus on the unique aspects of familiness in the context of sports franchises. Of the sports teams in this study, 84% are family businesses, and research continues to benefit from knowledge about the influence of leadership in the context of family businesses. Possible areas for further insight could focus on team performance in the context of family businesses, along with the moderators contributing to their organizational performance.

A final possibility for future research involves designing a study to measure leadership style through self-reports from coach and/or players. Designing a study to utilize self-reporting would provide an optimal way to gather primary data. The caveat to this design is that self-report measures are likely to be difficult to collect from this sample. Distributing shortened versions of the current survey during the off-season, along with gaining the support of the players associations and league offices of the respective sports could help to increase response rates if this research path is adopted.

Conclusion

This study utilizes the context of professional sports to examine the relationship between the perceptions of distributed leadership and team performance at the team level of analysis. Further, it examines to what extent greater and lesser levels of task interdependence moderate this relationship. Surveys and objective performance data of professional sports teams are used to test the proposed hypotheses. The study findings

indicate a positive significant relationship between the perceived level of distributed leadership and team performance. These findings could prove interesting because they are the result of an examination into the distributed leadership – team performance linkage from the third-party perspective of sports beatwriters. Knowing how this third party perceived leadership and team cohesion is interesting given the unique role of these sportswriters, and their proximity to the team coaches. Findings also reveal that distributed leadership is positively and marginally significantly related to performance in the context of football, but not in baseball, basketball or hockey. This counterintuitive finding is interesting because it suggests that greater levels of perceived distributed leadership behaviors are not necessarily subject to the moderating effect of team interdependence and therefore not necessarily related to higher levels of team performance as a work environment becomes more interdependent.

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APPENDIX A

Professional Teams in Each League

MLB	NBA	NHL	NFL
Atlanta Braves	**Atlanta Hawks**	**Anaheim Ducks**	Atlanta Falcons
Arizona Diamondbacks	**Boston Celtics**	Boston Bruins	**Arizona Cardinals**
Baltimore Orioles	Charlotte Bobcats	Buffalo Sabres	**Baltimore Ravens**
Boston Red Sox	**Chicago Bulls**	Calgary Flames	Buffalo Bills
Chicago Cubs	**Cleveland Cavaliers**	**Carolina Hurricanes**	**Carolina Panthers**
Chicago White Sox	**Dallas Mavericks**	Chicago Blackhawks	Chicago Bears
Cincinnati Reds	Denver Nuggets	**Colorado Avalanche**	**Cincinnati Bengals**
Cleveland Indians	**Detroit Pistons**	Columbus Blue Jackets	**Cleveland Browns**
Colorado Rockies	**Golden State Warriors**	Dallas Stars	**Dallas Cowboys**
Detroit Tigers	Houston Rockets	**Detroit Red Wings**	**Denver Broncos**
Florida Marlins	Indiana Pacers	**Edmonton Oilers**	**Detroit Lions**
Houston Astros	**Los Angeles Clippers**	**Florida Panthers**	**Green Bay Packers**
Kansas City Royals	**Los Angeles Lakers**	**Los Angeles Kings**	**Houston Texans**
Los Angeles Dodgers	Memphis Grizzles	Minnesota Wild	**Indianapolis Colts**
Los Angeles Angels	Miami Heat	Montreal Canadiens	**Jacksonville Jaguars**
Milwaukee Brewers	**Milwaukee Bucks**	Nashville Predators	**Kansas City Chiefs**
Minnesota Twins	Minnesota Timberwolves	New Jersey Devils	**Miami Dolphins**
New York Mets	**New Jersey Nets**	New York Islanders	**Minnesota Vikings**
New York Yankees	New Orleans Hornets	**New York Rangers**	**New England Patriots**
Oakland Athletics	New York Knicks	Ottawa Senators	New Orleans Saints
Philadelphia Phillies	Oklahoma City Thunder	**Philadelphia Flyers**	New York Giants
Pittsburgh Pirates	**Orlando Magic**	Phoenix Coyotes	New York Jets
San Diego Padres	**Philadelphia 76ers**	Pittsburgh Penguins	**Oakland Raiders**
San Francisco Giants	**Phoenix Suns**	St. Louis Blues	**Philadelphia Eagles**
Seattle Mariners	**Portland Trailblazers**	San Jose Sharks	Pittsburgh Steelers
St. Louis Cardinals	**Sacramento Kings**	**Tampa Bay Lightning**	**San Diego Chargers**
Tampa Bay Rays	San Antonio Spurs	Toronto Maple Leafs	San Francisco 49ers
Texas Rangers	**Toronto Raptors**	**Vancouver Canucks**	**Seattle Seahawks**
Toronto Blue Jays	**Utah Jazz**	**Washington Capitals**	**St. Louis Rams**
Washington Nationals	**Washington Wizards**	Winnipeg Jets	Tampa Buccaneers
			Tennessee Titans
			Washington Redskins

*NOTE: **Bold** denotes teams with coaches or managers identified in study.*

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire Items*

Construct	Measurement Items
Shared Purpose	*The head coach and team players…* 1. Spend time discussing their team's purpose, goals, and expectations for their projects. 2. Discuss the team's main tasks and objectives to ensure they have a fair understanding. 3. Devise action plans and time schedules that allow for meeting their team's goals. *The head coach and coaching staff…* 4. Spend time discussing their team's purpose, goals, and expectations for their projects. 5. Discuss the team's main tasks and objectives to ensure they have a fair understanding. 6. Devise action plans and time schedules that allow for meeting their team's goals.
Social Support	*The members of this team . . .* 7. Talk enthusiastically about their team's progress. 8. Recognize each other's accomplishments and hard work. 9. Give encouragement to team members who seem frustrated.
Voice	10. People in this team are encouraged to speak up to test assumptions about issues under discussion. 11. Members of this team have a real say in how this team carries out its work. 12. Everyone on this team has a chance to participate and provide input. 13. This team supports everyone actively participating in decision-making.

* : All items adapted from Carson, et. al., (2007)

APPENDIX C

Summary of Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypotheses	Results
Hypothesis 1: The perceived level of distributed leadership in a team is positively related to team performance.	Marginally supported
Hypothesis 2a: The positive relationship between perceived distributed leadership and team performance is stronger for basketball and hockey teams than for football and baseball teams.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 2b: The relationship between distributed leadership and team performance is positive and statistically significant for basketball, hockey, and football teams but not for baseball teams.	Partially supported

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSIONS

This study is a collection of essays that examines the performance outcomes of action and performance teams within organizations. It is the first to field test the 9-factor, full-range of leadership model and a model of distributed leadership to examine the perceived behaviors of organizational leaders of professional sports franchises as a proxy for leaders in the context of industry. Leadership is defined as a set of demonstrated behaviors that are intended to influence followers and, ultimately, influence the performance of a team. While the construct of team performance has enjoyed extensive examination in the academic literature, there is still more knowledge to be gained, and whether leadership originates from an individual or from collective group efforts, its effects on team performance are still not clear. The combined essays in this study attempt to contribute to the discussion by examining the relationship between two distinct sources of perceived leadership behaviors; individual in Essay 1, and distributed in Essay 2, and their respective relationships to team performance. The relational link between perceived team cohesion and performance is considered in the first essay as well as the moderating effects of task interdependence on the relationship between perceived distributed leadership and team performance in the second essay.

This manuscript contributes to the discussion of leadership, cohesion, interdependence and organizational performance by examining the perception of leader behaviors found to have a relationship to the success of action teams in prior studies. The combined essays analyze the survey responses from sports beatwriters that volunteered their perceptions of the leadership behaviors of certain National Football League,

National Basketball Association and National Hockey League head coaches[v] and Major League Baseball managers during the 2000 – 2011 seasons.

The first essay contributes to the discussion of team leadership by utilizing the full range of leadership theory to examine how the perception of leadership styles relates to the performance of action teams. It is posited that, generally, the more transformational the leadership style is perceived to be, the stronger this relationship. The perception of team cohesion is hypothesized to be affected by leadership behaviors, and to be related to team performance. Results show that leaders who are perceived as utilizing a broad range of leadership behaviors have a greater effect on overall team performance and perceived team cohesion than those who are perceived as employing only one style. Moreover, the results from the same group of examined leaders found a positive and strong relationship between perceptions of team cohesion and team performance. Unexpectedly, a leader's perceived use of active management by exception behaviors was found to make a positive difference for both the perceptions of team cohesion and team performance for this team type.

The second essay extends the examination of team performance by focusing on how the perceptions of a leader's distributed leadership behaviors relate to team performance. While it is hypothesized that this linkage is subject to the moderating effect of team interdependence; the counterintuitive findings of this study suggest that greater levels of perceived distributed leadership behaviors are not necessarily related to higher levels of team performance as a work environment becomes more interdependent. Overall, these studies provide insight into leadership behaviors observed in

organizational environments, and may serve to further our understanding of the leadership - team performance linkage to help firms gain a competitive advantage.

Essay One

[i] For this study, the term "head coach" is used to describe either head coaches or managers.

[ii] For this study, the term "head coach" is used to describe either head coaches or managers.

[iii] The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is copyright 1995, 2000, 2004 by Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio. The instrument is available for research purposes at http://www.mindgarden.com/products/alq.htm.

Essay Two

[iv] For this study, the term "head coach" is used to describe either head coaches or managers of all four sports.

[v] For this study, the term "head coach" is used to describe either head coaches or managers.